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CONTENTS

| | PAGE |
|--|------|
| Nationalism and the Social Studies, by Prof. C. J. H. Hayes - - | 247 |
| Teaching International Relations through the Social Studies, by Jessie C. Evans - - - - - | 251 |
| Self-Starting the Freshman College History Course, by Prof. H. L. Hoskins - - - - - | 254 |
| Social Science Studies in the Junior High School, by J. M. Gathany | 257 |
| Three-Year Senior High School Course in the Social Studies— Reports of the Social Science Teachers' Association of Southern California - - - - - | 266 |

Book Reviews, edited by Prof. J. M. Gambrill, 275; Anglo-American Historical Conference, reported by W. G. Leland, 280; Recent Historical Publications, listed by Dr. C. A. Coulomb, 282; Historical Articles in Current Periodicals, listed by Dr. L. F. Stock, 284; National Council for the Social Studies, 286.

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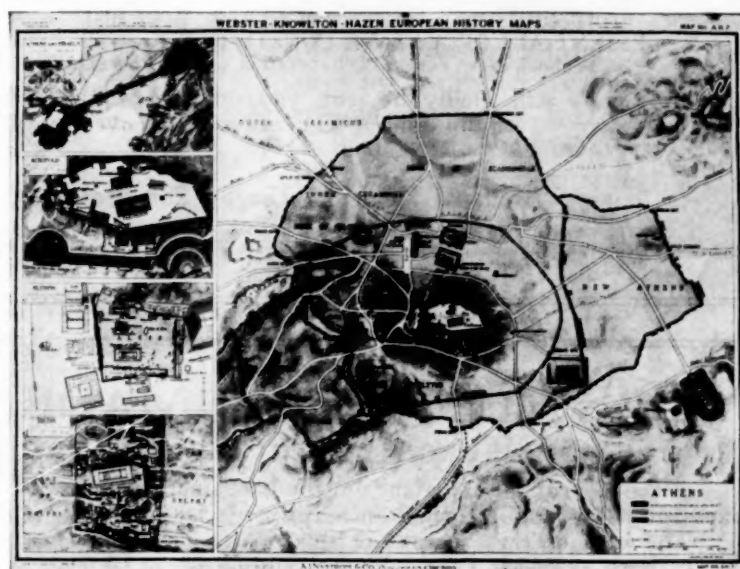
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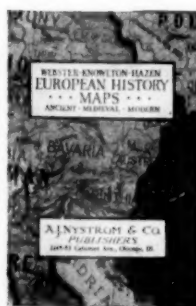
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Nationalism and the Social Studies^{*}

BY PROFESSOR CARLTON J. H. HAYES, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY.

I.

War has been throughout all the ages the pretty constant avocation of man. If in modern times war has been interrupted by comparatively long periods of peace, it is less a sign that man has found what William James hoped he would find, a moral substitute for war, than an indication that when man has plied his avocation of war he has plied it so wholeheartedly and so furiously as to exhaust him for relatively long periods. Our wars of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries may be briefer than those of earlier times, but they are vaster and more deadly. The recent Great War, though it lasted but four years, involved more persons, took a larger toll of human lives and property, and wrought more destruction than did the twenty years' conflict of the Napoleonic and Revolutionary eras, or the Thirty Years' War of the seventeenth century, or the three centuries of Crusading in the Middle Age, or the protracted series of Persian and Peloponnesian Wars of the ancient Greeks.

Nor has the recent Great War proved a final and cataclysmic ending of war. Unless I misread contemporary events, I perceive a hatred in Germany, a fear in France, an hysteria in Italy, a restlessness in England, a despair in Austria, a ruthlessness in Russia, a disillusionment and selfishness throughout the whole world, which betoken, perhaps in our generation, almost certainly in the next, another Great War. I do not know how the Powers will line up in the next world-conflict, but I feel certain that if and when it comes, it will be even deadlier and ghastlier than the Great War which humanity has just experienced. Signor Nitti, the Italian statesman and economist, tells us that there are more men under arms in 1923 than there were in 1913; there is no doubt that every existing army possesses a competent and determined general staff; there is evidence aplenty that prodigious progress (they call it "progress") is being made in the perfecting of air-planes, submarines and poisonous gases. As the last war was chiefly a test of artillery, so the next is likely to be principally a demonstration of chemistry. And just as every general struggle in Europe during the last hundred and twenty-five years has sooner or later involved the United States, so our country, despite Washington's Farewell Address,

despite the Monroe Doctrine, despite the present attitude of Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge and his fellow Senators, is bound to be entangled sooner or later in the next Great War. Our warships will belch flame and shot; our young men will be suffocated by the most horrible fumes; it is increasingly possible that our fields will be laid waste and our cities will be razed to the ground. Then, after the next war, if any bits remain of what we term modern civilization and modern science, they will be gathered together and utilized in preparedness for yet another world war. None knows how long this process can and will continue. If it continues unchecked, it must ultimately destroy all science and all civilization.

Why do we have war? Why, especially in our present age, when we prate so much about "progress" and "science" and "humanity"? Why have we recently had a Great War, and why now do we perceive on all sides preparation for another Great War? Present-day psychologists refer us, for an answer, to man's animal mind, to man's ill-concealed cave propensities, to man's combative instinct. Present-day economists refer us, for the answer, to trade-rivalries, to the competitive search for coal and iron and oil, to the greedy and quarrelsome exploitation of backward regions; in a word, to economic imperialism.

Economists and psychologists are doubtless right—so far as they go. Economic imperialism has certainly paved the way to most of the wars of the last fifty years, and without a combative instinct in the participants no war would be possible. But real civilization—true culture—implies the suppression, or, rather, the conscious direction of primitive instincts, and it is an arresting fact that that country is accounted most cultured and most civilized whose citizens, controlling their combative instinct, live most peacefully and most amicably one with another. Within our country we punish severely anyone who allows his combative instinct to express itself in robbery or murder. Apparently we reserve full expression of the combative instinct for dealings with foreigners. Yet if we can control our primitive nature in domestic matters, why may we not control it in international relations?

Nor can I believe that economic imperialism is alone the cause of modern wars. Undoubtedly there are now, as always, greedy and grasping men, who vie with one another in cornering the world's supply of this or that necessity, of this or that luxury, and

^{*} Paper read at the meeting of the National Council for Social Studies, in connection with the National Education Association, at San Francisco, on July 3, 1923.

greedy and grasping men are likely to be so unmindful of the welfare of the world at large as to get their fellows to fight in their own selfish interest. But our economic imperialists, stupid and near-sighted though many of them are, know better than to make economic gain the *casus belli*. The ordinary normal man will not lay down his life for his own economic gain, and surely not for the financial profit of some unknown fellow-citizen who has foreign investments; the supreme sacrifice is paid only for an ideal. American investments in Cuba had something to do with the Spanish-American War, but the masses of the American people gave support to that war not because of the investments, but because of their idealism. A considerable number of Americans had financial stakes in the recent Great War, but the American people as a whole went into the war because they were idealists. And it is so with every people and in every war. Economic imperialism may create a situation favorable to war. The unrestrained combative instinct may make war possible. But war is not fought without idealism in the hearts of the masses and noble shibboleths on their lips.

The basic trouble with our modern world, as I see it, is its anarchic system of independent and sovereign national states, the inhabitants of each of which are imbued with a peculiar national idealism and given to the uttering of curious national catchwords. In a word, the major factor in our present-day wars and rumors of war is nationalism.

The crowning achievement of the wars of modern times, especially the wars of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, has been the redrawing of the political map of the world on national lines. In earlier times a State might and usually did include peoples who spoke different languages and observed different customs; such, in ancient times, was the Roman Empire; such, in the middle ages, were the Empire of Charlemagne and the Holy Roman Empire; such, even in our own days, have been the Empires of Russia, Austria, Turkey, and Britain. But most of the world is now dissolved into national units. Every people that speak the same language and are conscious of some common historical background are marked off as a *nationality*; and every nationality is, or aspires to be, a wholly independent and sovereign State. Most recently, the Turkish, Austrian, and Russian Empires have been "Balkanized"; that is, "nationalized," and if other parts of the British Empire, such as Egypt and India, follow the example of Ireland, it will not be long before the sun shines only on a "Balkanized" world. And with the passing of the British Empire will pass, in all probability, the Pax Britannica. Under the new nationalism every kind of Pax seems to be passing.

Nationalism, as we know it, is a relatively recent phenomenon, almost as recent as political democracy. In our age, in fact, these two new phenomena are closely related: political democracy is an expression of the principle of self-determination in internal government; nationalism is an expression of the same

principle in external relations. Both presuppose a citizenry who are conscious of a certain community of interests and who choose to live together under a common law.

Democracy and nationalism, operating throughout the nineteenth century, and powerfully abetted by the Industrial Revolution, have produced state-directed systems of popular elementary education, state-controlled systems of universal military training, and privately owned public journals and newspapers. All these forces have done something, in turn, to promote political democracy, but much more to promote nationalism.

The sentiment of loyalty is a natural and ennobling sentiment of mankind. It has been and is applied by the gregarious animal whom we call man to many objects—to his birthplace, to his home, to his school, to his family, to his church, to his professional associates, to his club; when it is applied to his country it is recognized as patriotism, a peculiarly ennobling and natural expression of man's sentiment of loyalty. But that in the past century patriotism should have become confused with nationalism and that it should now transcend all other expressions of loyalty is the result of national journalism, of national militarism, and, most of all, of national education.

The state-directed schools, with which every democratic nation is plentifully supplied, teach the "three R's" incidentally and national patriotism chiefly. It is in the school primarily that the young receive their basic training in nationalism: they are taught to salute the flag, to sing the national anthem, and to venerate the "Fathers"; from their study of geography they gather that their country is, or should be, the most favored of all God's creation, and that it has, or should have, "natural boundaries," great "natural resources," extensive overseas possessions, and vast wealth; from their study of civics they discover that their country is the freest, the most liberty-loving, the most "progressive," the best governed, and the happiest on earth; from their study of literature they infer that their nation is the most cultured and the most honest; and from their study of history (what amazing history it is in these days of text-book burnings) they derive an exaggerated idea of the virtue and valor of their own countrymen and an equally exaggerated idea of the viciousness and cowardice of foreigners. It is from the school that the rising generation bring the catchwords and shibboleths of nationalism, such as "national honor," "national interests," the "genius of the nation," the "mission of the nation," etc. Every year there graduate from our schools a regular army of humans thoroughly imbued with a narrow, bigoted, boastful nationalism. And what is begun in the school is completed and confirmed in the national armies and national navies and in the columns of the popular press. And lest there might be, among the older and more sophisticated citizens, a momentary lull in the intense prosecution of nationalism, mention should be made at this point of the ceaseless activities of ultra-patriotic societies, veterans of

some war or other, or sons of veterans of some war or other, or great-great-grandsons or great-great-granddaughters of veterans of some war or other, or possibly some secret organization of hundred per cent. nationalists, whose mixed red-and-blue blood is concealed beneath a nightgown and a white hood.

With such a training of our generation and with such a psychology implanted in the masses, is it any wonder that international relations are increasingly strained and that war eventuates ever in more ghastly fashion? The investor in some backward country who gets into trouble with the natives or with a foreign competitor can really provoke an international war under existing conditions. He can appeal to his home government for "protection," with almost certain knowledge that a little publicity in his own nation—some newspaper paragraphs about "national honor" and the duty of avenging insults heaped upon a fellow national in a distinct place, and some journalistic disparagement of the offenders—will arouse the bulk of his fellow countrymen to a frenzy of nationalistic idealism. And where is the mere Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs who can withstand the popular frenzy of nationalistic idealism? It is time for the unchaining of the combative instinct. And with the prevalent anarchic system of national states, each jealous of its sovereignty and its "honor," each scanning the horizon to detect some injury done it, each boastfully toying with a swollen army and a powerful navy, how will any nation control the combative instinct?

II.

Is there a way out? Is there any hope for the future? There certainly is a way out, if we will seize it and use it in the education of the next generation.

How artificial is the current form of narrow, bigoted, boastful nationalism may be grasped by any person who understands the operation of the Industrial Revolution throughout the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. During the very period of history in which our schools and armies and newspapers have been inculcating the notion that humanity is dissoluble into little fighting groups of self-content and self-sufficing nations, a profound economic revolution has been conferring upon all of us the steam-boat, the steam locomotive, the electric motor, the gasoline engine, the automobile, the telegraph, the telephone, the radio. These things, accompanied by large-scale machine-production, vast world-commerce, trusts and international finance have come so universally and so recently that few of us yet realize their full import. The truth of the matter is that the Industrial Revolution has been laying the economic foundations of *world* citizenship, and that sooner or later, unless we perish or unless we destroy all industry and trade, we must square our political institutions with the economic foundations of the Industrial Revolution and our idea of the national State with the requirements of world citizenship.

Under existing economic conditions, no nation can be entirely self-sufficing, no nation can be really sovereign and independent of the rest of the world. The globe has shrunk rapidly during the last hun-

dred years, until now it is easier and more necessary for a Californian to trade with Europe, Asia, and Africa than it was in the eighteenth century for a New Englander to communicate with a Virginian. The globe has shrunk so small, in fact, that it may be handled by children, and if we are going to instruct our children in what is likely to be most useful to them in their bread-winning throughout life, then we must teach them in school the economic interdependence of all countries and all nations and all races.

The Industrial Revolution has created world markets not only for economic goods and capital, but also for ideas. No idea has ever been the exclusive property of a single nation, and ideas have always had a tendency to accompany man wherever he has travelled and to infect whomsoever he has come in contact with. Particularly now, when the earth is girdled with telegraphic and telephonic wires and strewn with books and papers, there is an unprecedented transit of ideas.

This fact means that most ideas, which under our nationalistic scheme of education appear to be distinctive of a given nation, are actually the common property of mankind. For example, we Americans still talk as though we were the only people in the world who understood and practiced political democracy, although Frenchmen, Englishmen, Italians, Greeks and most other nationalities make the same claim, as absurd in its exclusive aspect as it is true in its general application. For, generally speaking, political democracy is now understood and practiced throughout the world. It is almost the same with the idea of republicanism and with the idea of liberty and with the idea of equality.

It is similar with the ideas of religion. Before the advent of our modern national States there were great ecclesiastical institutions based on the religious ideas of Christianity, Judaism, Mohammedanism, Buddhism, etc. Most of these great religious systems were unifying, rather than disintegrating, forces in the history of mankind. Buddhism brought together teeming millions of East Indians, Chinese, and Japanese in a common cultural bond. Mohammedanism fired with a common zeal the most diverse tribesmen of Arabia, Turkey, Persia, India, the Malay Archipelago, and Africa. Christianity taught human brotherhood and erected its churches among all manner of Europeans and Americans, regardless of their language and nationality. For a time, following the advent of nationalism, there was a tendency to nationalize religion, to think of the Turks as *the* Mohammedans, of the English as *the* Protestants, of the Irish as *the* Catholics, and I fear that in present-day communities which are most given to the blind and narrow worship of nationalism such notions still obtain. But the Industrial Revolution, in expediting the spread of ideas in general, has fostered the spread of religious ideas in particular and has stimulated missionary enterprise on a scale hitherto unknown. It may well be that the great religious systems of the world in the next generation will resume their historic rôle of unifying the nations and contributing potently to the brotherhood of mankind. In any event, it does not behoove us who know history and

appreciate the Industrial Revolution to scoff at missionary exertions or ignorantly to assail any religion. With respect to Christianity, I become quite indignant when I perceive the attempts of certain French nationalists to belittle the achievements of Protestantism, or, again, when I behold spasmodic efforts of bigoted nationalists in my own country to brand as un-American and therefore as dangerous the international Catholic Church. And, by the same token, I resent nationalistic propaganda against the Jews. It is the business of the schools, I believe, to teach respect and toleration for the opinions of large sections of humanity, especially for those opinions that are enshrined in great historic religious systems. Religion may yet prove of inestimable value in re-cementing a broken and shattered world.

Science, too, may be put to constructive and unifying uses. It is impossible to restrict either experimental science or applied science to any particular nation. The first successful steamboat was invented by an American of Irish stock, the first telephone by an American of Scottish stock, and the first successful airplane by Americans of English stock, but airplanes, telephones, and steamboats are now operated in all civilized countries. The gasoline engine was invented in Germany and first applied to carriages in France, but more automobiles are now made in America than in all other countries put together. Americans know, or think they know, what a germ is, and most Americans are reputed to enjoy the radio; for the former they are indebted to a French scientist, and for the latter to an Italian scientist. It was a fine and fruitful interruption of political nationalism when American women recently purchased almost priceless radium and presented it for scientific purposes to a distinguished Polish woman living in France. The teaching of science can and should be made an antidote to narrow nationalism. And when science is so dealt with, it may prove less serviceable in forging engines for death and destruction among the nations of the world, but it will almost certainly prove more blessed to humanity at large.

Yes, there is humanity. Above the nations, though many persons of our age forget it, there still is humanity. And humanity is the very stuff of the social sciences. Geography describes man's habitat. Psychology deals with man's mental processes and man's behavior. Economics concerns itself with man's ways of gaining a livelihood. Civics treats of man's political institutions, and sociology of man's social institutions. History tells what man has thought, said, and done. With all the social sciences it is basically not Frenchmen, Englishmen, or even American men, but *men*, the individual members of humanity. Science, religion, art, and learning, all ideas, are the common heritage of humanity, and we teachers of the social sciences are cheating our pupils of the best part of their heritage as human beings if we limit their information and their interest to such matters and such interpretations as are compatible only with intolerant nationalism. In any struggle between nationalism and humanity, those teachers who are truly progressive, those teachers who have

some insight into the terrible fate awaiting an utterly triumphant nationalism must surely be on the side of humanity.

I feel so keenly the ravages in humanity that nationalism has already made and I foresee so clearly the awful final outcome of unrestrained nationalism that, if I thought the school curricula, and particularly the social studies, would be employed to strengthen and exalt it, I would urge the exclusion of all social studies from the schools; I would wish to go farther and to close the schools altogether. Better an illiterate nation than a nation taught to hate and exterminate others.

But to such a sorry choice we have not as yet come. There is still hope, and the great hope resides in education. In fact, it seems to me that even now a great race is beginning, a race that will be run throughout the next generation, between the forces of nationalism and the forces of humanity, toward the respective goals of destruction and salvation. The schools will play a transcendent rôle in such a race, for in them the runners will be trained. And with the aid of economic internationalism and intellectual interdependency, and with due attention to the influence of the Industrial Revolution in world-geography, in world-economics, in world-civics, and in world-history, we teachers of the social studies should perform heroic service in training runners for the race in behalf of humanity, the race that leads to salvation.

In conclusion, I would seek to set at rest one misapprehension which may haunt some of you. I have not been attacking patriotism this afternoon and I am not urging you to be unpatriotic. You will note that throughout this paper I have rarely used the word "patriotism" and that my attacks have been directed against what I have termed "nationalism." Patriotism is love of country, and, as I suggested earlier, love of country is a peculiarly ennobling and natural expression of man's primitive sentiment of loyalty.

Nationalism is partly love of country, but chiefly something else. Nationalism is a proud and boastful habit of mind about one's own nation, accompanied by a supercilious or hostile attitude toward other nations; it admits that individual citizens of one's country may do wrong, but it insists that one's nation is always right. Nationalism is either ignorant and prejudiced or inhuman and jaundiced; in both cases it is a form of mania, a kind of extended and exaggerated egotism and it has easily recognizable symptoms of selfishness and jingoism. Nationalism is artificial and it is far from ennobling; in a word, it is *patriotic snobbery*.

True patriotism, on the other hand, involves *humility*. If we really love our country, we shall be bowed in humility in its presence, and in humble fashion we shall labor to bring to it all the blessings and hopes of humanity and to promote the happiness and well-being of all its citizens. We shall be so intent upon improving our country, spiritually, intellectually, and physically, and upon making it a fit habitation for fellow human beings that we shall not have the time or the inclination to attack other countries in thought, word, or deed.

The Teaching of International Relations Through the Social Studies.

BY JESSIE C. EVANS, WILLIAM PENN HIGH SCHOOL, PHILADELPHIA.

You will remember that Dr. Robinson in "The Mind in the Making" starts out with the statement: "If some magical transformation could be produced in men's ways of looking at themselves and their fellows, no inconsiderable part of the evils which now afflict society would vanish away or remedy themselves automatically. If the majority of influential persons held the opinions and occupied the point of view that a few rather uninfluential people now do, there would, for instance, be no likelihood of another great war; the whole problem of 'labor and capital' would be transformed and attenuated; national arrogance, race animosity, political corruption, and inefficiency would all be reduced below the danger point." One of the most discouraging things about life is one's inability to make any impression on the opinions of most grown-up people. Who has not after an effort to discuss, let us say, the labor question, or the League of Nations, been glad to change the subject to the weather, which, at least, offers no opportunity for violent differences of opinion? But we teachers of the younger generation, having what some may consider an unfair advantage over our audience, may hope to *try* at least to bring about the "magical transformation."

I can already feel dissent in the air. Some years ago I was present at a discussion here in New York led by Dr. Beard, in which the consensus of opinion seemed to be that the wise teacher had no opinion, at least, in the classroom! The first time I addressed this association, many years ago, I was rebuked by an eminent historian for presuming to suggest that history might be interpreted by the teacher. So I must hasten to justify myself by saying that I have not an intention of suggesting propaganda of any sort. Nothing but the truth should be taught in any classroom, and the chief aim of any teacher of history should be to teach his pupils to think for themselves. But it is perfectly evident that nowhere except in the history seminar can all the facts of history be presented; a choice must be made. The responsibility of making this choice rests upon the teacher and textbook writer. By the choice of subjects for discussion the minds of the young people may be directed into the paths desired. All this is apropos of teaching international relations.

Fortunately for the purpose of our discussion the importance of our subject no longer needs any proof. In 1918, and even in 1920, interest in international relations seemed confined to a few, but the developments of the post-war period have convinced all but the most hard-headed advocates of "normalcy" of the existence of a world community. To students of history, economics, and social conditions it has long been evident that the intense nationalism of the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries was merely a

phase of development, recent in its origin, and no more sure of permanency than any other phase of human history. The increasing complexity of modern life, with its interlocking political and social interests, means either international suicide or international co-operation. Even those in high places who are estopped by recent political history from taking the path into the existing League of Nations are willing to admit that much.

If it is the chief duty of the teacher of the social studies to train his pupils for worthy citizenship in the community, what shall we consider to be the community? We have taken up the home, the school, the neighborhood, the city, the state, and the nation. Now it seems that the world as a community claims our attention.

To train for world citizenship the teacher should try to develop (1) appreciation of international interests, (2) appreciation of the contributions of other nations to our common heritage, (3) love of humanity regardless of race or color, (4) appreciation of the essential unity of human history, (5) pride in national achievements for world benefit rather than mere national aggrandizement at the expense of others.

To accomplish these purposes it is not necessary to introduce new courses into an already crowded curriculum. The essentials are World History (including the History of the United States), Economics, Civics, Sociology, Geography, and Current Events. Our first step is to be sure that these are required of all students. Until this is done it is futile to suggest special courses in international relations which would be unintelligible unless based upon these studies. It is a deplorable fact that many high and preparatory schools have the most fragmentary courses in the social studies. Students are graduated with only Ancient History, or only American History, or only Industrial History. Such schools, far from preparing for world citizenship, are not preparing even for intelligent American citizenship. But even if we could afford the time a special course would seem to me to be undesirable in the secondary school. The aims in view can be much better secured by a new emphasis in the standard courses.

Just as United States History and Civics are fundamental to the teaching of national citizenship, so World History is fundamental to the understanding of world citizenship. It is strange to realize how recent is the movement for the teaching of World History! In a way it is a return to the practice of twenty-five years ago, but with a great difference. General History, useful in its time, was a compendium of information; World History, as now taught, is a study of human progress. In the interval between the two we divided our history into national com-

partments, thus emphasizing a separation which existed more in imagination than in reality. Mr. Wells attacked that sort of history in 1919 in his well-known fashion:

"The History of England has the effect of something going on upon a doormat in a passage outside a room full of events and with several other doors. The door opens, the Norman Kings rush out of the room, conquer the country hastily, say something about some novelty of which we have learned nothing hitherto, the Crusades, and exit to room again.

"From which presently King Richard returns dejected. He has been fighting the Saracens. Who are the Saracens? We never learn. What becomes of them? We are never told. So it goes on. The broad back of history is turned to England throughout. Its face and hands are hidden and we make what we can of the wriggling of its heels.

"The American story is still more incomprehensible. An innocent continent is suddenly inundated by Spanish, Portuguese, French, Dutch, and British, who proceed at once to pick up the threads of various conflicts, initiated elsewhere. Someone called the Pope is seen to be dividing the new continent among the European powers. Colonies are formed. What are colonies? These colonies, in what is apparently a strenuous attempt to simplify history, break off from their unknown countries of origin. A stream of immigration begins from west and east. The American mind establishes a sort of intellectual Monroe Doctrine and declares that America has no past, only a future. From which sublime dream it is presently aroused to find something of unknown origin called European imperialism wrecking the world. What is this imperialism? How did it begin?

"Suppose other subjects were taught in the same fashion that we adopt for history; suppose we taught human physiology by just sitting down to the story of the liver, only alluding distantly at times to the stomach or to the diaphragm or the rest of the body. Would students ever make anything of physiology?"

When he followed this declaration by an excursion into the historical field himself to do what he felt no historian had the courage or the insight to do, he offended and startled the historical brotherhood. However, they soon began to realize that the public were with him and then began to try to beat him at his own game.

World History, sympathetically taught, affords the opportunity to give the young people most of the ideas which I suggested: Appreciation of international interests, of the contributions of other nations to our common heritage, of human progress, of the essential unity of human history and love of humanity. Of course, the teacher must be on the lookout for opportunities to stress these ideas. He must be careful lest he "fails to see the wood because of the trees." I remember one successful lesson of mine, memorable because the class for once did me credit when a visitor was in the room. We were discussing Charlemagne's empire building and his ideal of a universal state, which should bring peace and order

to the distracted world. The girls were easily led to go back to Alexander and Caesar for comparison. I ventured on Napoleon, who was really outside their range at that time, but some knew of him. It being war time, we paid our respects to the Pan-German dream of universal Kultur and then passed on to Woodrow Wilson's ideal of the League of Nations. The discussion of the world state became so interesting that our visitor joined in and we had a thoroughly socialized recitation. I hope that the members of the class remember that lesson as well as I do! Another lesson on internationalism which pleased me (there were no visitors to bear me witness of its success) occurred the other day in a discussion of Lehman's picture of the siege of a city in the fourteenth century. I asked the question, "Why do not our cities have walls like those of the middle ages?" The members of the class were able to show how our national organization for protection had taken the place of the small units of the feudal period. They were much amused at the folly of a method which would have required New York and Philadelphia to build walls and maintain armies against each other. I then raised the question of the possible opinion of people two or three centuries from now as to the folly of *nations* arming against each other. After long discussion the bell rang with one irreconcilable still holding out for the difference in language as an insuperable bar to a community of nations.

Miss Tuell, in her little book, "The Study of Nations," has shown us in admirable fashion how we may teach appreciation of the characteristics and contributions of other nations. Whether we follow her method or not we may accomplish the purpose by taking some leaves out of her book. Ambassador Geddes, in a memorable address in Philadelphia recently, said that he considered the false teaching of history one of the greatest bars to the amity of nations. As a Scot, he said that it was drilled into him as a boy that the English were an ignorant, stupid, blundering, inferior race. But he humorously remarked that he got out of that opinion in spite of his bad start. Every nation has written some page of its history to glorify itself at the expense of another nation. We might give as examples the accounts in the older textbooks of the American Revolution and the War of 1812.

Next to World History in its importance for our purpose is the study of current events. Whether this is taken as a separate course or as a continuing part of all courses in the social studies it cannot fail, if interpreted by a teacher of broad interests, to impress the students with the importance of international questions. In fact, ever since the outbreak of the World War the current periodicals have been so filled with European news that it is hard to find time for national and local events. I happened to overhear two girls who were working the other day as a committee on our school bulletin board. "Now, what-do-you-think-o'-that," said one, "'most all we got is European news!" "That just shows," replied her companion, "what them foreigners can do!"

Economics may be treated from a purely national

point of view. But, again, the teacher who wishes to do so can make almost every topic international in scope. Take, for example, the conservation of natural resources. That used to be merely a question of whether or not we were going to make America's material possessions serve the future generations of her own people. The last few years have shown us that it is perhaps the paramount world issue. Ambassador Geddes, in the speech to which I have just referred, said that in his opinion the questions which would make or mar the peace of the world in the future were connected with lumber, coal, and oil. Those who have attended the recent luncheons of the Foreign Policy Association must be impressed by that fact. The economic issues are the ones which are going to make us have to live in peace or commit national suicide. Communication, transportation, trade, corporations of international scope entangle our affairs so with those of other nations that we can no longer exist separately.

Labor problems occupy a large place in any course in economics. They may be treated from a purely American point of view, but any broad consideration must lead at once to world questions: the international organizations of labor, the attempts of the socialist labor groups to bring about internationalism, immigration, the effect of world markets upon employment, the racial elements in the present labor force and many others.

It would be better for our purpose if United States History could be taught as part of world history, and in some progressive schools that is being done. It is undoubtedly a mistake to do as Mr. Wells charges: establish a sort of intellectual Monroe Doctrine. However, there are so many purely national questions which must be understood in order to train for *American* citizenship that a separate course is defensible. Such a course should, however, follow one in World History and contain constant cross reference to foreign affairs.

The Monroe Doctrine itself is too often considered apart from the world situation which brought it about. The Jacksonian Period is usually treated as a curious group of phenomena peculiar to our country, with no reference to the great democratic revolution proceeding at the same time in Europe. The wave of humanitarianism of the middle of the nineteenth century is frequently not at all connected with the period of reform in England and France. A little care on the part of the teacher will show that our social development was but a part of a general movement. So, also, is it with the treatment of the Industrial Revolution, the financial panics, and a host of other things.

I have already referred to the tendency which we share with all other nations to attempt to twist history so as to make it appear to our advantage and to the disadvantage of some other nation. It is strange that this had seemed to be necessary in order to feed our national pride. Are we not great enough, have we not enough to be proud of without claiming what is not ours? There is no harm in admitting some mistakes and failures. Our national

pride should be based upon our real achievements, our contributions to the stream of world progress. What matters if the War of 1812 was not as glorious a success as we used to think it was? Did we not give to the world the cotton gin, the reaper and the farm tractor? Did we not return the Chinese indemnity that it might be used for the education of young China? Has our charity not fed the starving of the whole world? Would that we had more world services to recount, but let us make the most of those we have, rather than of the aggrandizement which we have secured at the expense of Mexico and Spain!

In training world citizens we must train them not only to be "historically minded," but internationally minded. It is curious how fearful people are of the word "international"! I suppose that is because of its adoption by the socialists. There seems to be a feeling that one cannot be internationally minded without being in some way disloyal to one's country. It is as though it were to be said that if a man loved his city he must therefore have no regard for his home. While, on the contrary, the more he loved and worked for his city the better his home would be cared for.

In the teaching of civics, as in American History, our first interest is, of course, to make good American citizens. Most of the time must be occupied in the accomplishment of that purpose. It is perfectly possible, however, to have international interests in mind even there. Curiously enough, that was first impressed upon my mind by a small seventh-grade boy in a summer school class. We were developing together the various communities to which we all belonged: the home, the school, the city, the state, the nation. When we seemed to stop there he insisted that the world was also our community and we all agreed with him. The discussion of health leads to the question of foreign relations through quarantine against world epidemics, the inspection of immigrants, the difference in standards of living amongst immigrant groups. The study of municipal government is much enriched by comparisons with methods of sanitation, housing, transportation, and the like in European cities. The study of the work of Congress would not be complete without a discussion of the treaty-making power of the Senate and its predominant influence on our foreign relations. It would probably be unseemly for the teacher to point out the great need of training in world citizenship of candidates for the Senate!

Above all things, we must teach the meaning of *progress*, both for national and for world citizenship. An appreciation of the growth of ideas is the best preparation for an acceptance of growth and change in contemporary society. If we could only train up a generation who were expectant of change and who welcomed it when it is for the betterment of mankind, it would not matter what particular ideas we tried to inculcate! In their day, which will not be ours, world problems may have developed in a way entirely unforeseen by us. The important thing is that they should have open and sympathetic minds and should have acquired the habit of thinking internationally.

Self-Starting the Freshman College History Course

BY PROFESSOR HALFORD L. HOSKINS, TUFTS COLLEGE.

Perhaps a number of causes conspire to make the first college year distinctly less satisfactory than the others. Here enter new factors in "this freedom," social activities, and social status, age, tradition, and educational method. It is here postulated that, as far as academic standing is concerned, the difference in method of instruction plays a more important part in freshman bewilderment than any other factor. This will undoubtedly help to explain the exceedingly high student mortality in most institutions at the end of the freshman year (if not earlier). The writer has no intention of entering upon a discussion of the relative merits of methods used in the conduct of college courses, but he ventures to suggest that the wisdom of introducing into freshman courses a somewhat greater degree of what is called the "high school" method of instruction is worthy of consideration.

At any rate, it can usually be demonstrated that results of freshman work improve according to the definiteness of the work prescribed, other factors being equal. Inasmuch as the habits of lesson preparation formed during the first college year are apt to persist throughout the college course, any efforts on the part of college instructors to encourage method and care on the part of the student, particularly in times like these, are surely well worth while.

The following "Instructions and Suggestions for History Work" are offered as an illustration of one attempt to bend the twig in the right direction. These suggestions are issued in mimeographed form, along with the syllabus used in the freshman history course, and in the two or three years that they have been employed in approximately this form they appear to have aided considerably in improving the quality of work done. Being emphasized at the outset, they have saved much valuable time which would otherwise have to be spent in iteration and reiteration. This list has been prepared to fit the needs and conditions in a particular course and in a particular college, but it may be sufficiently suggestive to help in solving similar problems elsewhere.

INSTRUCTIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR HISTORY WORK.

I. CLASS ATTENDANCE.

Institutions of higher learning in Europe do not usually prescribe attendance at class exercises. Credits or certificates of proficiency are granted there only upon the successful passing of elaborate examinations. Practice in most American colleges and universities differs, however, since it is realized that, regardless of ability to pass examinations, many of the most valuable features of a course can be obtained *only through presence at class lectures and discussions*. No amount of study will serve as a substitute. Accordingly, class attendance is required in this institution, with some lack of uniformity in detail, but not in principle.

In order to emphasize the fact that the best interests of the student require his attendance at class, the following arrangement has been made for all courses in which this is announced.

1. Any absence from class exercises for any reason inevitably militates against the effectiveness of a course and the class standing of the student.
2. Absence for any reason which cannot be "excused" will automatically reduce the final mark of the student, on the basis of one grade letter per each three unexcused absences in standard three-hour subjects, and in like ratio in other subjects.
3. As a rule, absences are considered excused *only*:
 - (a) In case of illness, for which a certificate is presented, signed by a physician approved by the College authorities.
 - (b) In case of absence due to authorized College activities, for which the proper College authorities issue written statements.
4. Any student entering the classroom after the roll is taken is accounted absent, unless a statement as to his presence is made to the Instructor at the close of the class session. Unjustifiable cases of tardiness, as well as absence, affect the student's class standing.

II. NOTEBOOK PREPARATION.

It is definitely established that, for best results, the use of notebooks is essential in history work. It is equally well established that poor notebooks and note-taking methods are often worse than none. In order to accomplish the desired results and to minimize the likelihood of unprofitable notes, the following specifications are uniform requirements in all undergraduate, even-numbered subjects in this institution.

1. *Size and Variety of Notebooks.* The notebook for history use should always be of the *loose-leaf, side-opening variety*, accommodating paper, 5" x 8", 6" x 9", or 8½" x 11" in size. The 5" x 8" size is recommended to students whose writing is of average size. Notebooks and paper specially adapted for history work are obtainable in the College Book Store.

2. *Arrangement of Notes.* Only one side of the page should be used for note taking.

The margin on the left-hand side of every sheet is to be used for the noting of *sources and pages* on which notes are based, and main headings of topics on which notes are taken. The margin thus forms an index to the entire body of notes and it *should be used as such*.

Notes should always be written in ink.

Notes may be taken in summary (paragraph) form or in outline form. The former is much to be preferred. If the latter style is used, the outline should be made to give actual in-

formation which will be of material assistance in reviewing the work.

3. *Content and Organization of Notes.* Notes should include:

- (a) The main points, at least, in every class lecture.
- (b) The substance of *prescribed* reading.
- (c) Selections of important material from *recommended* reading.

There should be, however, no duplication of materials. Notes should ordinarily *not* be taken on textbook material, inasmuch as it is assumed that the text is always at hand for reference.

Notes should preferably be organized under the topic assigned for study, and should always indicate whether they are based on *lectures* or on *collateral reading*.

The margin of the notebook should show a complete record of the reading done in connection with the subject outside of the textbook.

4. *Value of the Notebook.* A number of purposes are served by the college notebook:

- (a) It assists the memory process in concentrating attention on the material written down.
- (b) It functions as a synopsis of the subject and as a source of pertinent information in a rapid review of the ground covered.
- (c) It preserves the "cream" of the work done in the subject for reference in subsequent years.
- (d) It gives valuable practice in the organization, condensation, and composition of material.

It is hardly necessary to point out to the conscientious student that a notebook reflects the character and habits of its owner, and is one of the most infallible indications of the student's attitude toward learning.

Notebooks will be submitted for inspection at intervals.

III. TERM PAPERS OR "THESES."

1. *The Undertaking: Choice of Subject.* Topics suggested for formal papers in the lists posted (or read) are, for the most part, general. They will usually need to be further limited or defined for actual use to conform to:

- (a) The interests or purposes of the student,
- (b) Books and materials available on the subject, and
- (c) Space limits prescribed for the paper.

This defining of the subject is an important matter and should not be undertaken without having given considerable thought to the nature, scope, and *historical importance* of the subject as listed.

2. *The Tools: Bibliography.* The next step in the preparation of the paper is the location and evaluation of all sources of information bearing on the subject. These should be classified thus:

- (a) Primary (original) sources—official documents (laws, constitutions, decrees, etc.), contemporary papers, memoirs, accounts by eye-witnesses, etc.

- (b) Secondary (derived) sources — books, papers, articles, etc., generally by more recent writers, based directly or indirectly on the above.

Materials in each list should be arranged *alphabetically* (by name of author), and the bibliography should show, for each work listed:

- (a) Author's full name, reversed,
- (b) Full title of the work,
- (c) Place (city and publishing house) and date of publication,
- (d) A brief critical analysis or review of each title, showing its general nature and its fitness for use in connection with the particular subject.

Magazine articles should be listed by author, whenever possible; otherwise, by title of article. In either case, the name of the journal, volume number, and pages incorporating the article should be given.

3. *The Raw Material: Basic Information.* As reading on the subject progresses, careful notes should be made on all materials which pertain particularly to the subject in hand. These notes may consist either of *excerpts* or *digests*, or both. It is very important, however, that these notes, on which the paper itself is to be based, show definitely whence they were obtained, so that it will not be necessary to waste time and pains at the last in searching through materials once used in order to cite the source of authority in the final paper.

4. *Shaping of the Work: Outline.* When all sources of information are in hand and their content known a preliminary or trial *outline* should be constructed, showing the form and proportions of the paper *as projected*. No hard and fast rules can be given for the construction of outlines. The following suggestions, however, should remove some of the difficulties:

- (a) Determine the general parts into which the subject naturally falls (usually somewhere between 3 and 8 in number). Set these down, topically, as main headings.
- (b) Determine the main considerations in each of these principal divisions, and set them down topically, as sub-headings, and so on, to perhaps the third stage of sub-division.
- (c) Remember, always, that when anything, including a topic, is divided, it must be into *at least two* parts.
- (d) The outline should be logical (i. e., reasonable), and should reflect the proportions it is designed that the finished paper will have.

Confer with the Instructor regarding Bibliography and Outline before actually writing the paper.

5. *The Finished Product: Completed Manuscript.* History is not merely a repetition of facts; it involves an explanation or interpretation of these facts, as well. Hence, history has to be

re-written for each generation. Each history paper or "thesis" should represent an attempt to contribute to the knowledge and understanding of the subject dealt with. It should be *original* in method of approach, in analysis, in evaluation of sources, in historical interpretation. It should *not* copy or mimic.

The paper should, nevertheless, show the sources of the basic information drawn upon for *each important statement or allusion* in its text. These citations of authority should be inserted, along with any other parenthetical, critical, or explanatory notes desired, in footnotes, and should always include:

- (a) Author,
- (b) Title, and
- (c) Volume, with page or pages relating to the matter in hand.

The paper should be prepared in accordance with the rules and usages which obtain in ordinary English composition. Due care should be exercised with regard to unity and coherence (so that the theme or *thesis* may be always in evidence), and to the more mechanical matters of spelling, punctuation, paragraphing, margins, spacing, etc.

The following requisites, particularly, should be noted and included in the manuscript to be submitted:

- (a) A title page, containing title of paper, name of author, number of course, and date submitted.
- (b) A *revised*, classified Bibliography.
- (c) A *revised* Outline, showing how the paper has been organized and written.

And the paper should be:

- (d) Typewritten, on one side of typewriter paper (approximately 8½" x 11" in size).
- (e) About words in length.
- (f) Prepared in duplicate, so that one copy may be retained by the student.
- (g) Submitted promptly at the time to be announced.

A number of abbreviations and formal, standard expressions are commonly used in writing and in printing for the sake of convenience and economy in time and space. Some of those most frequently employed, with their English equivalents, which may be used to advantage in the preparation of term papers, follow. Capital letters will naturally be employed in the usual manner:

- art.—article.
 cf. (cp.)—compare.
 cit.—citation.
 ed. (s)—editor (s).
 e. g.—for example.
 et seq. (sq., sqq.)—and the following.
 f. (ff.)—page (s) following.
 ibid. (ib., id.)—the same; in the same place.
 i. e.—that is.
 infra. (in., infr.)—below.
 in loc.—in its (the same) place.

- i. q.—the same as.
 loc. cit.—in the place cited.
 ms. (mss.)—manuscript (s).
 n.—note.
 non seq.—it does not follow.
 op. cit.—previous citation.
 p. (pp.)—page (s).
 passim—here and there.
 sc.—namely.
 seq. (sq., sqq.)—the following; next.
 supra (s. sup.)—above.
 u. s. (ut supra)—as above.
 vide (v., vid.)—see.
 viz.—namely; to wit.
 vol. (s)—volume (s).

IV. THE HISTORY EXAMINATION.

A history examination may be either oral or written. Inasmuch as a greater degree of uniformity can be preserved and the results more accurately determined in a written examination, that type is usually employed in history courses.

1. *Purpose of the Examination.* The examination serves several valuable purposes. For instance:

- (a) It acts as a brief review of a course or a part of one, touching on some of the more significant phases, promoting mental organization of the material studied and tending to fix the more important parts in mind.
- (b) It possesses a disciplinary value, pointing out to the student any weaknesses in preparation, and indicating more efficient methods of approach to the subject matter.
- (c) It serves as a gauge to both the student and the instructor, by which the one can estimate his success in pursuing the study, and the other can partially determine the relative position of the student in the class.

No suitable substitute for the examination has ever been devised. Nevertheless, the examination often fails to function in the way intended, either because of inadequate or faulty conduct of the work in the course or because of improper methods in the immediate preparation for the examination, or both.

2. *Preparation for the Examination.* To do himself and the history course justice, the student should follow as far as possible the following suggestions:

- (a) Prepare *every lesson* consistently and conscientiously. Ask questions on points not fully comprehended. Confer with the Instructor to verify class standing. This is practically all the preparation ever necessary.
- (b) Shortly before the examination is due, it is well to *review* the work covered, by (1) reading the notes taken in course, and (2) sketching through the text-book or syllabus for the purpose of refreshing the memory; re-reading, perhaps, the material on any points of importance which are not well remembered.

- (c) Quietly think over the philosophy or meaning of the events and movements taken up in the course, and try to determine definitely how these came about and why they are important.
- (d) *Do not cram* for an examination. Such a process confuses the mind with irrelevant details and unnecessarily excites the nerves, usually resulting in a poor paper.
- (e) Particularly, try to be physically fit at the time of the examination, and there will be little likelihood of becoming "befuddled" or "flustered" or of having a case of "nerves." Plain food at proper intervals, regular, vigorous exercise, and *plenty of sleep* are the chief essentials. Without this kind of preparation even the best student incurs a considerable hazard.

3. *The Examination Process.* The history examination is primarily a test of ability to think—to reason—on the basis of historic fact. It is a test of comprehension and maturity as well as of memory. All questions, therefore, should be considered from the viewpoint of *historical significance*.

However, presupposing adequate preparation and the "historical attitude," a technique of examination writing must be acquired for the most satisfactory results. Credit can be given only for correct information from the proper source actually set down in the examination paper. Nothing must be taken for granted. In order to make the most of the period devoted to the test, the student would do well to consider these essentials:

- (a) Place name, course—or subject—number,

and date on each examination book or paper used.

- (b) Number all answers in accordance with the numbers of the examination questions, regardless of the order in which the questions are answered.
- (c) Estimate the amount of time which can be devoted to each answer, and *limit the writing to this interval*. It is usually better to answer all the questions briefly than to give detailed consideration to some, thereby necessitating the omission of one or more for lack of time. Any spare time should be devoted to re-reading or amplifying the paper.
- (d) Organize the answers. A few moments may be spent wisely in mentally measuring the question. Then the answer should lend itself to organization through paragraphing, enumeration of points, and tabulation. Whenever practicable, use a graphic or tabular view. Make all ideas instantly evident.
- (e) Waste no time. Be direct and concise; state those points involved in the question and do not write at random. Mere words are of no avail. If any question cannot be answered, pass on and do justice to the others.
- (f) Examination papers are not read for pleasure. The more easily and readily they reveal their contents to the Instructor, the higher, relatively, they are rated. The best papers are not necessarily written by those with best preparation and most knowledge. Therefore, write legibly, neatly, and observe the rules of English composition.

The Teaching of the Social Science Studies in the Junior High School

BY J. MADISON GATHANY, A. M., EAST ORANGE, NEW JERSEY.

In order to think out and plan intelligently and effectively the work in the social science studies in the junior high school, certain major points should be kept clearly in mind. Among them are the following:

1. The functions of the junior high school.
2. The relation of the work in the social studies in the junior high school to the work in the same studies in both the elementary grades and in the senior high school.
3. Objectives and aims in teaching the social studies.
4. Methods and means of obtaining the objectives and aims.
5. The philosophy of what is to be accomplished.
6. The course of study in the social studies from grade one through grade twelve.

THE FUNCTION OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL.

There are those who regard the junior high school as the taking of the seventh and eighth grades out of the grammar schools and the ninth grade out of the high school and the putting of these three grades into a building by themselves, doing the usual work of these grades in the usual way. Such a view of the junior high school is, of course, wholly inadequate and basically wrong. Fundamentally, the three years of the junior high school constitute a period of educational discovery and exploration in the school life of the boy and girl. The junior high school represents neither elementary education nor secondary education as such, but a wise and sound admixture of both, *plus* something different from either, that something else being intermediate education of the exploratory, opening-doors, new-visions, trying-out type. Those

in charge of such an institution must be among the vanguard of educators and teachers. And since the junior high school is not yet as definite an institution as the other public schools, and has no set traditions among pupils, teachers, and the public, it affords to the resourceful principal and wide-awake teachers of such a school an unusual and almost unlimited opportunity to try out new materials, new programs, and new methods that may make education and life take on new interests and new significance to the students of the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades. It is perfectly evident that those who believe that tradition and authority forbid changes in the course of study have not the slightest conception of the junior high school idea.

RELATION OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL TO THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS AND TO THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL.

Since the junior high school lies between the elementary schools and the high school, it follows that unless teachers in all three fields of the students' education consider the entire school life of the pupil as an entity or unit, the most effective educational work cannot be done. Elementary school work leads up to junior high school work and junior high school work leads up to senior high school work. It, therefore, behooves each one of us as a teacher or principal to understand thoroughly the materials, the processes, the methods, and the results all along the line from grade one through grade twelve. Intelligent, sympathetic, and deliberately planned co-operative work is required, and should be gladly rendered by all.

OBJECTIVES AND AIMS IN THE TEACHING OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCE STUDIES IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL.

What should be the objectives and aims in the teaching of history and citizenship in the junior high school? What should the teachers believe as to why these subjects should be taught?

That students in the seventh, eighth and ninth grades should know certain facts of history; the frame-work of our government, city, state, and national; the rights and duties of citizenship in our country, and have a fair knowledge of the facts of the more important happenings of the day, no sane person would venture to question. But such a view of subject matter in the field of the social studies, while praiseworthy and desirable, is not sufficient. The new day, the new world, the new education, call for much more, very much more.

Understanding of cause and effect; some interpretation of facts and events; an awareness and an appreciation of how we live together in our modern society, of how we might live together better, with less friction and less upheaval in democratic society; a fair insight into social and industrial life; realization of the interdependence of human beings as well as the interdependence of nations; appreciation of the relation of certain great and powerful forces and movements to civilization; understanding of the fundamental principles upon which sound and enduring government rests; comprehension of the prin-

ciples which underlie stable economic and industrial living; establishment of proper attitudes toward organized society, enacted laws, and existing institutions; cultivation of catholicity of spirit; indoctrination of the principles and the spirit of our Constitution and American democracy; the establishment and development of a genuinely liberal and progressive spirit in adolescent boys and girls—these are among the objectives and aims which the teacher of history and citizenship should set his mind and heart upon as he prepares his lessons and teaches his classes in the social studies in the junior high school. It is perfectly evident that the junior high school is much more than merely assembling the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades in order to do the customary routine work of those grades.

MEANS OF SECURING THE OBJECTIVES AND AIMS IN THE TEACHING OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCE STUDIES IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL.

Every resourceful teacher has literally dozens of different methods and means of securing objectives and aims in teaching. Comparatively few can receive attention in this report. At one time or another, I have used all of the following methods and means in the teaching of the social studies to seventh, eighth, and ninth grade pupils, and to others.

A. In the teaching of biography as an approach or introduction to history, it might be well generally to group men about events, rather than events about men, though the well-trained and experienced teacher knows that there is much value in studying important personages as men and women and in grouping conditions and events about significant leaders and heroes. In this phase of the work the following sample guide questions could be made of genuine service:

1. What are the simple leading facts about this person's career?
2. What kind of a home did he come from? What did he inherit?
3. What educational advantages did he enjoy?
4. What were his personal characteristics?
5. What was his occupation? Was he successful in it?
6. What public positions did he hold? What was his attitude toward office-holding?
7. Was he a good neighbor? Who were his friends? Who his enemies?
8. What characteristics did he possess which you like? Why?
9. What decisions did he make that revealed his character and shaped his career?
10. What is his contribution to his nation's life?
11. How has civilization benefited by his life and work?
12. What lessons do you see in his life for us?

B. Vocabulary work—Definitions.

The teacher should not neglect vocabulary-building work, particularly that phase of it that pertains to *usable meanings* of terms, because words are the tools of the thinker. No thinking can be done without the use of words. The greater one's vocabulary, the deeper and wider will be the range of one's

thoughts. Mental longitude and mental latitude rest upon a knowledge of words. The educated person is known by the exact and precise use of terms. Other things being equal, the greater a person's vocabulary, the greater will he be respected, the greater will be his earning power, capacity for friendship, effective citizenship, and appreciation of life.

It ought to be easy for any one listening to detect whether an individual in defining and explaining words and expressions is merely repeating another's words or is using words significant to himself. The old dryer-than-chips method of word study—the method of running to the dictionary with a miscellaneous list of words arbitrarily selected—should never be employed. Yet the habit of consulting the dictionary should be encouraged. In my opinion, terms should always be studied in connection with actual concrete material that is being read—should be studied in their setting—to meet a particular need and a particular case at hand. A central idea, then, is that in word study terms should be studied as actual need of knowing the use of them arises. It is well for those who are building up a vocabulary to give the meaning of terms in their own words both before and after they are looked up in the text and in the dictionary or elsewhere. The right way and the wrong way of using words should be pointed out and supplementary meanings given. Very frequently the real meaning of a whole paragraph depends upon grasping the content of a single word. Teachers should encourage pupils to bring up for explanation terms whose meanings they do not know. This work is not only valuable and interesting; it is absolutely essential to real education.

C. Debates and Discussions.

The alert teacher will find one or more topics for debate or discussion in every lesson assigned in the textbook or in current events. In fact, every important declaration of principle and every significant fact set forth can easily be used, with or without change in form, as a proposition for discussion. This is an exceedingly good field in which to do serious, sustained, and fruitful thinking. The individual, be he teacher or not, should not, because of the way in which propositions are stated, gain the impression that the intention is to have them accepted affirmatively or negatively. Both sides should be heard. He should keep in mind that they are propositions for discussion, not propositions upon which final conclusions must or should be reached. The teacher or instructor must not act as an intellectual dictator, or give the impression that such is his function. Ultimate solutions are not what he should expect from those studying with him, but possible solutions of the problems under discussion. He, of course, should welcome difference of opinion, but never partisan slurs or partisan wrangling. The discussions should be so conducted that both proponents and opponents contain themselves calmly and listen patiently throughout a discussion, though pronounced differences in belief are held. The average American cannot listen with patience to an opinion different from his own. Hence studying current problems with

others in the spirit suggested is an experience every American should have. The instructor should take care to impress upon all that in discussing affairs of both textbook history and current history mere personal opinion is not all that is expected or desired. Personal opinion should be allowed free expression, but history should be largely drawn upon, and numerous illustrations given which will tend to prove or disprove personal opinion as stated. No misstatement should be left unchallenged. This sort of work is valuable training for Americans both young and old. It is hard on personal prejudice and unsupported personal opinion.

In conducting discussions, I have found that the requiring of two-minute speeches by pupils standing at the front of the room before their classmates is an unusually fruitful method. It is easy to see that several excellent results would come to the student in following this method.

D. The Topical Method.

In the junior high school an extensive use of the topical method of studying history is not considered wise. When used, it should be used in its simplest form, more in the nature of outlining simply selected topics. But this method should be used to such an extent that the junior high school student will have a fair acquaintance with it before entering the senior high school. Perhaps the main use of this method in the junior high should be for review purposes. The topical method might very well be used in reviewing such topics as:

1. Hindrances and helps to union among the Colonies.
2. Comparison of French and English ideas of colonization.
3. Reasons why the Colonists won the Revolutionary War.
4. The leading political parties and their beliefs or doctrines.
5. The spoils system vs. the Civil Service system.
6. The rights and duties of American citizens.
7. The powers of our Congress.

E. The Outline Study Method.

This is an exceedingly effective method of studying any or all of the social science studies including current events. But, like any other good method, it should not be used continuously. It consists of three principal parts, and at the time this method is introduced the teacher should dictate a few sample outline studies to the class. After that, students should make out their own outline studies, the teacher now and then comparing his outline studies with those of his pupils.

The three parts of an outline study are:

- I. Vocabulary words.
- II. Fact questions.
- III. Thought questions.

It is understood that the difference between a fact question and a thought question is that the answer to a fact question can be found in the textbook or in subject matter assigned for the lesson in question, while the answer to a thought question cannot be found either in the textbook or in the assigned

material. A fact question is based on the assigned subject matter, while a thought question is *suggested* by the reading of the assigned subject matter. The answer to a fact question is definite and unquestioned, while the answer to a thought question is largely a matter of personal opinion, but personal opinion backed up by sound reasoning and common sense. A sample outline study follows:

Topic: Taxation without representation.

Reference: Beard & Bagley, pp. 119-128.

OUTLINE STUDY.

I. Vocabulary work.

1. Revolution.
2. Merchant-marine.
3. Parliament.
4. Bribery.
5. Stamp Act.
6. Boycott.
7. Writs of assistance.

II. Fact questions.

1. What was the object of Grenville's plan to tax America?
2. In what ways did the Colonists protest against the stamp taxes? What was the "Stamp Act Congress"?
3. What were the Townshend Acts? How did these Acts affect the Colonists?
4. What did "no taxation without representation" mean to an Englishman? What did it mean to an English colonist in America in 1764?

III. Thought questions.

1. Is popular control of the public purse essential to free government? Illustrate your discussion.
2. Did or did not the Colonists do wrong in dumping the costly chests of tea into Boston Harbor in 1773? Reasons.
3. Was the English colonial system tyrannical, selfish, and short-sighted? Note each characterization carefully. Support your opinion by specific data.
4. Did Parliament have the right and the power to tax the American Colonists? Discuss.

F. The Problem Method.

What is meant by the problem method? There are several ways of expressing it. For straight textbook work in history the problem method means (1) getting pupils to see the problems that confronted the people in the past, and (2) teaching them to solve the problems of the people of the past as they were solved by the people of the past, not as they might have been solved, or as we think they should have been solved. Their problems are not our problems; their solutions not our solutions.

But there is a type of problem work in history, government, community civics, and current events which goes a step further than the sort of problem work just mentioned and becomes very much akin to project work in these subjects. The formulation of a few problems of each type will make clear the difference between the two types.

The following are of the first type:

1. The problem of providing Federal governmental machinery just after 1789.
2. The problem of establishing suitable foreign relations just after 1789.
3. The problem of getting the control of government in the seceded states back into the hands of the whites after the Civil War.
4. The problem of settling the coal strike of 1902.

And the following are of the second type of problems, problems akin to projects:

1. Was it fortunate for America and mankind that England won over France in the struggle for the control of the American continent?
2. Is the United States an industrial democracy?
3. Was it fortunate that the Allies won over Germany in the World War?
4. How might our local government be improved? The leading steps in the problem method are:
 1. Examination of the material out of which the problem arises.
 2. Consideration of what the real problem is.
 3. Careful wording of the problem.
 4. Suggestions as to the solution of the problem.
 5. Drawing conclusions based on the study of the materials or arriving at the solution of the problem.

G. The Project Method.

It may not be inappropriate to offer distinction between a project and a problem. According to those who have made a study of the project method and the problem method of teaching, two very fruitful methods indeed, the real difference between a project and a problem is this: A *project* includes a problem, but involves more than a problem. A *problem* does not provide for a natural setting; a *project* does. By natural setting of situations is meant that the solutions undertaken in school are no different than they would be were they taken up in life outside the school. The problem has an artificial, an imaginary, setting. Without the natural setting there is no project. A project involves "purposeful activity," and provides for the act being carried to completion. Briefly stated, then, "a project is a problematic act carried to completion in its natural setting."

A very great need in junior high school work as well as in the grades below the junior high grades is the formulation of a large number of sample projects which may be used in showing teachers in a given community how to devise and utilize projects in the community in which the teaching is going on.

The method of solving a project is essentially the same as the method of solving a problem, which has already been outlined in brief.

The wording of some social science projects follows:

1. How a study of the Constitution of the United States might aid in the working out of a constitution for the student organization of our junior high school.
2. What the young people of East Orange might do to make East Orange the best possible city of its size.

3. Why a civic center for East Orange would be a good thing.
4. Resolved, that there is a great need of the rising generation making a careful study of our Constitution.
5. Why is the price of coal and rent so high?
6. What can our city do to Americanize the foreigners in our midst?

H. *The Supervised Study Plan.*

In teaching by this plan, as is well known among progressive educators, the teacher is regarded as a director of study, not as a purveyor of information. He works with the students, but not for them, teaching them how to think, how to organize, and how to apply. This method of study provides a definite program for each lesson; the program usually consisting of the review, the assignment and the study of the assignment. Supervised study seeks to qualify pupils to recognize problems, attack them, and prosecute them to a successful conclusion. It provides adequately for the development of individual initiative, sound reasoning, and good judgment.

I. *The Socialized Recitation.*

While this phase of the work might very properly be considered under the supervised study plan, yet, because of its supremely important place in the work of the social studies it is here treated separately.

There are sound reasons for discarding the old and widely used recitation method. For most school children the reciting of facts is an uninteresting and deadening process, a malignant enemy of individual initiative and original thinking. The only education really worth while is that which comes through self-activity. This is the fundamental reason for using the socialized recitation.

In conducting this type of recitation, all the talking is carried on in a purely conversational manner, as nearly as possible a reproduction of an orderly conversation carried on among members of a family and their friends at the dinner table or in the living room. The class becomes a talking class, not a formal reciting class. No one is under the impression that he is "going to school." Artificiality and stiltedness have no chance to perform their deadening work. Pupils like the socialized recitation because they know that it is their recitation. They are not afraid or embarrassed to ask questions. They enjoy holding each other responsible for what is said. This type of recitation teaches pupils the value of independence of thought, how to ask questions, self-control, how to lead a group of people in conversation, and respect for the opinion of others. It makes pupils participants in the race for education and not mere spectators while some of their classmates recite what an author has said. What a powerful instrument the socialized recitation is in securing the objectives and aims in the teaching of the social studies is easily seen.

J. *The Cumulative Method.*

This method is best explained by giving a few illustrations of work done according to it. The following topics might receive definite and continuous

consideration throughout the entire school year:

- (a) What do true Americans believe?
- (b) Who are the great makers of history? Why?
- (c) To what words in this assignment should we pay particular attention?
- (d) What propositions well worth discussing does this lesson suggest?
- (e) What lessons does this assignment teach us?
- (f) What kind of people does it take to make a nation great?

K. *The Tracing Method.*

This method is a very economical and effective means of getting pupils to appreciate the relation of certain great forces, processes, and movements to civilization. In using it, textbooks are regarded as reference books. By using the indexes of these books, pupils trace chronologically the origin and development of such forces and movements as religion, democracy, art, geography, science, the family, morality, and what great men have contributed to the progress of the race. Such topics are studied transversely before they are traced longitudinally.

L. *The Question.*

Special attention should be given to the question as a factor in securing the objectives and aims in the social studies. Training pupils to ask clear, concise, thought-provoking and significant questions is no easy task. Pupils, nevertheless, should be taught how to do this. Great care also must be exercised by teachers themselves in asking pupils questions. The kinds of questions the pupils are taught to ask and are asked are those the answers to which necessarily involve mental processes beyond memory, the kind that require power of selection and arrangement and the interpretation of historical facts and current happenings. Samples of such questions follow:

- (a) Are you civilized? Prove your answer.
- (b) Should voting in a democracy be considered as a privilege or a right?
- (c) Should voting be made compulsory?
- (d) What is the meaning of the paragraph you have just read?
- (e) Would you vote for that bill were you in Congress?
- (f) Who is the less desirable citizen, the miser or the spendthrift?
- (g) Would the country be better off without wealthy men?
- (h) In what ways can your community be improved?

M. *Special Reading and Study in Americanization.*

The Americanization of boys and girls should be regarded as the most important work falling to this department. To that end, considerable time should be devoted to the reading and discussing of the material found in such books as "The Story of Liberty," "American Patriotic Prose," "American Patriotism in Prose and Verse," "Patriotic Citizenship," "The Forum of Democracy," "Democracy Today," "Uncle Sam's Modern Miracles," "The Real Business of Living," "The Land of Fair Play," "The

American Spirit," and to the reading and discussing of current affairs as recorded and interpreted in such magazines as "The Literary Digest" and "The Outlook."

N. Conclusion Drawing.

It would probably be rather difficult to mention even a few things in life more important than that of drawing conclusions. Conclusions, whether sound or not is another question, are drawn before we join a political party, a social organization, a church, or any other group. Conclusions are drawn before we vote, or praise, or condemn. What is more important in life than drawing sound conclusions? Does not social, political, economic, racial, national, and international justice or the securing of such justice, rest upon drawing sound conclusions and acting in accordance with the drawing of such conclusions?

Yet, strange as it may seem, very little attention is given to this exceedingly vital matter in classroom instruction.

Of what value is it to study about the discovery of America, the Civil War, the invention of the cotton gin, the National Government, local conditions, political parties, current event happenings, or anything else, unless we draw sound inferences and conclusions from such study? Do we go to school merely to spend time and get information?

Now, when a pupil is asked to draw an inference or a conclusion it is not expected that he will begin to repeat a lot of the facts the author has given about a topic, nor should he be allowed to do so. A conclusion is a sound inference or reasoned judgment arrived at by studying the facts about a given topic or subject.

It is perfectly evident that teachers of the social science studies in particular should be impelled by the very nature of the subjects they teach to give special attention and consistent attention to the training of their pupils in the matter of drawing sound inferences and conclusions from what they study. The probability is that if students are not taught how to draw sound inferences and reasoned judgments from what they study in school, they will not be apt to do so when they get out of school.

O. The resourceful junior high school teacher will, of course, make effective use of very many other means and devices for obtaining the objectives and aims of the social studies, some of the additional means and devices being:

- (1) The planning and executing of special programs before the entire student body.
- (2) The dramatizing of significant historical scenes and events in the classroom and before the student body.
- (3) Conducting elections on State and National election days.
- (4) Making out a list of dates and events to be learned.
- (5) Making out a list of important personages to be remembered for each term's work.
- (6) Making a few maps each term.
- (7) Searching out reasons for many of the more important provisions found in our National

Constitution, the constitution of our State, and in the city charter, and

- (8) Paralleling and discussing the privileges and duties of the American citizen.

THE PHILOSOPHY OF WHAT IS TO BE ACCOMPLISHED. SOME VITAL VIEWPOINTS BRIEFLY STATED.

It is unquestionably true that in the last analysis the real success of a course in history, citizenship, or anything else rests upon the character and training of the teacher. Provided the general philosophy of what is to be accomplished is satisfactory, a school system would be perfectly safe in allowing the *trained* teacher to do pretty much as he pleased in handling the course of study.

But what in these advancing and progressive school days is a satisfactory philosophy of what is to be done in the social studies—history, civics, geography, economics, politics, and sociology? The social studies are passing through a period of transition in which several schools of thought seem opposed to each other in some respects. But it appears to me that intelligent and progressive educators and teachers would find themselves in substantial agreement with the philosophy of social science teaching for the junior high school grades found in the following statements:

1. Factual education is important and essential, but not sufficient.

2. All civilization ever has been and civilization still is a process of becoming, the essential idea being the idea of development, "a development that implies continuity, and a continuity that implies unity." We are now in the process of that development, that continuity, that unity. Our own institutions, our own Constitution, and our own views of social and economic relationships *are* in a process of change, of continuous becoming. This is a vital conception of civilization and one which the child can and should come to understand in the early years of school experience, and the teacher should keep this conception of history and civilization constantly in the foreground of his thinking.

3. Democracy itself is essentially a thing of the spirit rather than of form; it always has problems on hand to be solved, and, consequently, the citizens of a democracy must be fundamentally progressive in spirit and liberal in attitude. Democracy in the long run will perish unless as a rule those who compose it are more, much more, constructive than obstructive or destructive in viewpoint.

4. But lest the idea of continuous becoming lead the human mind to an exaggerated and unsound conception, the history of the development of civilization backs up the conclusion that changes and institutions that are worth while were not effected with great rapidity. Rome was not built in a day. The substantial achievements of your life and mine have not hours but years of effort back of them. Humanity has come to its present status of civilized life through centuries of incessant and continuous pain and severe exertion. Our Constitution and our institutions were years a-borning. The whole course of civilization, therefore, stands solidly against any radical and swift overturning of the foundations of modern life.

5. A satisfactory philosophy of what is to be done in the teaching of the social studies includes an understanding of a socially sound relationship of the individual to the community in which he lives. No individual can any longer believe in absolute personal independence. There is no such thing. An intelligent understanding of the facts of geography and population will permit of no such belief. Geographically, one locality necessarily becomes in these days complementary to another. Politically speaking, ever increasing population implies cordial and friendly human relationships. Safety of life and property, that is, law and order, implies organization and rules and loyalty to these. As has been aptly said, personal liberty ends where public injury begins. Existence in modern civilized life demands that the individual shall of his own volition come to see that his own best interest lies in the best interest of his fellow men. In fact, citizenship has been rightly defined as participating in community life, in co-operative group life. If such a social philosophy should come to grip the life of the individual citizen, the solution of such problems as that of prohibition, of capital and labor, of race, color, and religion would be comparatively easy. And it is most assuredly a part of the teacher's duty to develop such a social philosophy in his students.

6. In the teaching of the social studies in the junior high school, a satisfactory educational philosophy would include an intelligent and sympathetic appreciation of the interdependence of nations as well as the interdependence of individuals.

Let there be no misinterpretation. No nation can do its best for the whole world until it has first done its best by itself. There is a brand of "internationalism" that is fundamentally a vast disloyalty—the brand, for instance, that has recently developed in Russia. The most direct service that the individual American citizen can render the human race is to do his part in making the United States a strong and virile, but kindly and just, thinking nation. For it becomes more and more evident that the best internationalist is the true American. But there is a type of Nationalism that is decidedly perilous—a narrow, over-weening, egotistic, isolated nationalism. For this type of nationalism there is no place in the sun. And teachers must see to it that it gets a black eye whenever it shows itself.

There is no longer any question whether the United States shall ever be a world power. She is. For more than a century, it was the settled policy of America to keep aloof from entanglements in the affairs of the rest of the world. She was able to do this primarily because of her fortunate geographical position, abundance of land, the absence of European intervention in affairs that were American, the lack of genuine, practical democracy throughout the Old World and the Far East generally, and because she had not, until 1898, penetrated into the affairs of the Far East, and because Japan, until rather recently, was a comparatively insignificant military and naval power as well as being unprogressive.

To the intelligent and thoughtful observer, the one-

hundred-year-isolation policy is no longer possible. Geographical isolation is gone, for the progress of mankind has virtually annihilated space. We have acquired overseas possessions, and have penetrated into the Far East. Japan has become a progressive modern nation, with notable military and naval strength. America has a mortgage on Europe, and, therefore, is necessarily interested in her industrial reconstruction. The United States has adopted the "open door policy" as regards China. America called the Washington Conference, and the "Four Power" treaty between Japan, Great Britain, France, and the United States resulted. The Near East problem recently led to the presence of a dozen American destroyers in the waters of the Mediterranean. America's interest now extends to everything, anywhere, that may threaten the peace of the world. Ever the great champion of American isolation, Senator Borah, now demands that the United States Government call a world conference and take the lead in rehabilitating the world. A hundred years ago, there was in the Old World but one tiny spot in which the principle of democracy was practically applied, namely, in a few of the cantons of Switzerland. Today, there is but one tiny spot in all the world that has not, to a more or less extent, accepted the principle of democracy, namely, the Kingdom of Siam. Government by fear and force has passed from the face of the earth. This is the big thing that has happened in the last hundred years. The significance of this is that the world is fast becoming one, and that the only force that will now hold it together, and, therefore, keep civilization from going to smash, is international good will and the universal practice of the principle of the Golden Rule.

It seems to me that the philosophy of social science teaching which I have set forth not only should become, but must become, the guiding philosophy of educator, teacher, and student, not only in thought, but in action as well. And in our teaching of the social studies, we should make it our business to so order our work and our contact with our students that we shall put across over into their minds and hearts such an attitude toward the individual's part in society, toward law, government, leaders, institutions, the Constitution, our Nation, and foreign nations, as this philosophy of social science teaching that I have sketched implies. For we should remember that the attitude that the individual holds toward these things is the most important thing about him. It determines his usefulness to society.

PROBLEMS OF REORGANIZATION.

In reorganizing the work in the social studies for the 7th, 8th, and 9th grades, here are some questions that it might be well for us to consider:

1. Is the work in history, geography, and civics for these grades conducted altogether too much as though each one of these subjects is almost a separate course in itself, rather than viewing them altogether as one whole well-rounded unit, thinking of the subject matter of the entire social studies as one body of closely related material? Can we not combine

geography, history, and civics for the 7th, 8th, and 9th grades all in one course?

2. In laying out and executing the work of the grades, especially grades 6, 7, and 8, have we thought enough about the work these pupils will soon take up in the high school? Should we not lay more stress upon helping junior high school pupils do better the things that lie ahead of them? Can we not so plan and carry out our junior high school work in the social sciences that the graduates of the junior high school, upon entering the work of the senior high school, will not suffer by any break at the end of the ninth school year, such as is now generally suffered in going from the elementary to the high school? As regards both materials and methods used, the freshman in the high school appears to be journeying in a strange land. By co-operative efforts of the teachers in both the junior high and the senior high school as regards aims, purposes, materials, and methods, might not this journeying in a strange land be done away with? How would it do for the programs of the teachers of the two schools to be so arranged as to permit (I came nearly saying so arranged as to compel) the two groups of teachers to become acquainted with each other's work by actual exchange of visits?

3. From actual experience in East Orange, one judges that there is more or less of over-lapping and repetition of school work as regards the curricula of the elementary schools and the high school. Can we not do away with this over-lapping and repetition and in the process of eliminating it strengthen our work as a whole?

4. As one approach to the work in the social studies in both the junior high and the senior high school one is inclined to ask if the very important phase of social science work as now outlined in the sixth grade, known as the European background of American history, presents both an accurate and adequate conception of our Old World background. My experience in both junior high school work and in senior high school work leads me to believe that this portion of the social science work, as now generally conducted, results in a jumbled, disconnected, and hence almost valueless conception of the civilization that lies back of our own civilization here in America. It is, perhaps, fair to say that even the adult American finds it hard to see just when and where the connection lies between American civilization and European civilization, and just what America received from other nations, by reading such books as Gordy's "American Beginnings in Europe," Tappan's "Our European Ancestors," or "The Dawn of American History in Europe," by Nida. In these books and their like, with one exception so far as I know, the most vital part of the connection between our own civilization and that of other lands is not treated at all. Most of the books for the grades close the European background of American history virtually with the founding of the American colonies. Now, any intelligent student of history knows very well that to stop the story of Europe's influence upon and con-

nection with America at about the middle of the 16th century or even the middle of the 17th century or 18th century is not only grossly inadequate, but educationally disastrous as well, because it would deprive the great mass of young Americans of all formal instruction in modern world culture and aid in keeping Americans decidedly provincial in their outlook. We should keep in mind that there is no *set* European background of American history. From the very time that the Old World met the New World, Europe influenced America. Europe is influencing America now, and ever will influence it as long as time lasts. Before the junior high school student is allowed to begin formal study of American history, he should have a fairly good grasp upon the striking and essential ideas and movements of mankind, should see the unity of all history, the evolution of civilization, and thus come to his study of American history with an equipment that will give him a firmer grasp upon and a better understanding of America's proper place in the story of mankind and the part the United States should play in the destiny of the race. Such a view of European background of American history is most admirably and simply stated in a new volume entitled "Our Old World Background," by Beard and Bagley (Macmillan).

5. It is perfectly evident that not only America, but the whole world is suffering because of lack of knowledge of the most elementary principles of economics. The United States has rightly been characterized as a land of economic illiterates. Our educational system should set before itself the task of knocking this characterization into a cocked hat, and some of this task should be assumed by the junior high school. No junior high school student should be permitted to pass either into the senior high school or out into life without a practical comprehension of the basic principles of economics, such as how wealth is produced, consumed, and exchanged; how all the factors of production—land, labor, capital, and management—are inter-related and inter-dependent; how our whole economic system fits together, and how and why material well-being is absolutely essential to progress and prosperity. Intelligent speaking acquaintance with vital economic words and terms would naturally be one of the objects of economic instruction in the junior high school. The presentation of theoretical economics would not be allowed. Practically every bit of the work would be done by actual concrete examples of everyday economic experience, and the instruction would be conducted in a very plain and simple manner, mostly by means of class discussion, almost never by the recite-to-the-teacher method. This course I would label Economic Civics, because the entire emphasis would be placed upon the social and moral phases of economics. Among the more advantageous results of such a course would be the helping of junior high school students to do better senior high school work, and thus help to eliminate the journey in a strange land.

6. In reorganizing the social science work for the junior high school, another question which it might

be well worth while asking is, Could the work in current events be conducted to greater educational advantage than at present? That current events is as widely taught as it is in East Orange is a matter of high commendation. Whether current events should be taught in the upper elementary grades, the junior high school and the senior high school should not from now be a matter of choice on the part of any teacher. All teachers of the social science subjects should be required to teach current events. The choice of the papers and magazines to be used might be left to the judgment of the teacher and the students in the senior high school; in the upper grammar grades and in the junior high school, the selection should be made by consultation of teachers, principals, and advisers.

The question of teaching current events is too large a one to receive full consideration in this report. The question of methods to be used is, in itself, a very large topic. Only a few of the more vital points can be mentioned.

Current happenings are democracy at work. They show men, institutions, and movements in operation in accordance with, or against, democratic principles. They are democracy in practice. They are matters of vital concern, and, therefore, when studied make people think and lead them to reach conclusions either tentative or final that are arrived at on moral grounds in the interest of society. Such, at any rate, is the experience of teachers that fall within the range of my knowledge. And these considerations show that the thoughtful teacher will think that he not only should, but that he must, teach current events.

The question of selecting what current happenings to take up in class is a vital one. In my opinion, such topics should be studied as illustrate the fundamental principles of democracy, as imbedded in our Constitution, our customs, and our practices. Many of the topics selected ought to find their historical background in our contemporary history, that is, our history from the time of the Civil War up to the present. Almost all of them should be of such a nature that they will be of vital interest to the country for years to come, either nationally, or internationally, or both.

If current events for classroom study are selected on these principles, the work in the social studies in the junior high will not only be vitalized, but the students themselves will be trained to understand high school work better, and the daily newspaper and the magazine will be matters of absorbing and living interest to them.

A question which the teacher of the social studies should keep constantly in mind is, How might the lesson of today be illustrated by current happenings?

Many of the methods mentioned in another part of this report can be used in the teaching of current events.

Current events should be taught in connection with every social science subject, beginning certainly not later than with the sixth grade and continuing to the end of the twelfth.

THE COURSE OF STUDY IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES GRADES ONE THROUGH TWELVE.

A. *Elementary Grades—One Through Six.*

1. The work in the social studies for grades one through five to be conducted as now arranged, except the history work for the fifth grade.

I would suggest that the work in history for the elementary grades, that is, grades one through four, be left as at present. In the fifth grade, I suggest that in place of the work now done in that grade, as laid out in the course of study in history for the grades, a simple but complete story of American History, from the age of discovery to the end of the World War, be substituted, at least a third of which should be devoted to the years since the Civil War. In such a course, the characters and events of each chapter of it should be associated with some simple, unifying problem or project, and collectively the projects would present an outline of the chief features of American history. The biographical method would be freely used, but not to such an extent as to obscure the larger movements of American history. This course would give a connected account of the rise and growth of the American people. Such a course would constitute excellent preparation for the combined course of history, geography, and civics for the junior high school, and would meet the object that is well-known, namely, that children actually weary of one biography after another, with births, deeds, and deaths, and lose sight of real American history. Then, too, we must remember that history in the age of democracy consists of more than merely the lives of great men. History during, say, the last seventy-five years, has been social history, that is, achievements of peoples, primarily, and not merely a succession of biographies. This big fact pupils in the fifth grade should come to appreciate.

2. For grade six.

a. History.

European background to be treated as this report has suggested. If no better book appears, that known as "Our Old World Background," by Beard and Bagley, to be used.

b. Civics.

The work in civics to remain as it is.

- c. Current events to be conducted as suggested in this report for the entire year.

B. *Junior High School.*

1. History.

2. Geography.

3. Civil Government.

The three above subjects to be combined into one single course, and in general the material used to be that found in the Social Science Pamphlets for the 7th, 8th, and 9th grades, issued by Harold

- and Earle Rugg, Lincoln School, New York City.
4. Community civics to be taught in the 8th grade.
 5. Economic and Vocational civics to be taught in the 9th year.
 6. Current events to be taught throughout the year in all three grades.
 7. For the new course—the Social Science Pamphlets course—a generous supply of up-to-date geographies, atlases, American history textbooks, European history textbooks, civil government textbooks, and blank maps, would be needed.
- N. B. If after the entire series of the Social Science Pamphlets for the 7th, 8th, and 9th grades appear, it is found that the pamphlets cover the work suggested by the Economic-Vocational civics course, that course would not be offered separately.
- C. *Senior High School.*
1. History.
 - a. Grade X. (1) Modern Progress (the expression European history is not significant enough for this course).
 - (2) Current events throughout the year, especially those dealing with international relations.
 - b. Grade XI. (1) American History—to be treated in the main topically—chronologically.
 - (2) Current events.
 2. Social Science.
 - c. Grade XII (1) Problems in American Democracy.
 - (2) Current events.

When viewed carefully, it will be noticed that the reorganization of the course for the social studies that I have suggested has back of it the fundamental conception of the junior high school idea, that is, that one school experience should prepare for the next, that the junior high school and the senior high school in aims, purposes, and courses are to be so closely related that the two schools are in reality but two phases of one school, and that the entire school experience, from grade one through grade twelve, is preparation in and for the duties of American citizenship.

A Three-Year Senior High School Course in Social Studies

Report of the Social Science Teachers' Association of Southern California

GENERAL SUMMARY.

BY CHAIRMAN L. L. BEEMAN, HEAD OF SOCIAL SCIENCE DEPARTMENT, SANTA ANA HIGH SCHOOL AND JUNIOR COLLEGE, SANTA ANA, CALIFORNIA

The Social Science Teachers' Association of Southern California includes teachers who teach any of the social studies in the grades, junior and senior high schools, colleges and universities, and any others who are interested in the work. At present the Association has about 150 members.

This Association has been working for more than a year on a revision and reorganization of the social science work in the high schools of the State. This work has been done by five committees. These committees combined their reports into one report, which was unanimously adopted by the Association in April of this year, 1923.

It is to be understood that the work provided in this report is suggested as the minimum uniform and standard requirement for graduation from the high schools of California. But any high school may offer any additional courses that its needs may demand.

A survey showed that a great variety of courses are being offered in the high schools of the State. The only uniformity is in the case of United States

History, which is required by the State Board of Education.

This survey showed that sufficient social science courses are offered, though there is little or no uniformity in courses, the year in which they are offered, and the requirements. (See p. 269.)

Our next problem was to find out whether or not the graduates of the high schools are taking these courses other than the one required in United States History, and if not, why not, and what should be the remedy. To discover this we made a second survey.

We discovered from this survey that one-third of the graduates of our high schools have had no preparation or background for United States History. And that of the 31 per cent. who have had one year of European History, that for 68 per cent. of them that year has been Ancient History, which in itself gives a very poor background. (See p. 270.)

We find that from one-third to one-half the schools offer certain courses as civics, economics, and social problems after American History and that about 50 per cent. of those eligible elect such courses; therefore, only from 15 per cent. to 25 per cent. of the graduates of our high schools get any social science work after American History. This means that less than one-fourth of the graduates of the California

high schools get an adequate preparation for the duties of adult citizenship. Approximately 15,000 students will graduate from the high schools of California in June, 1923.

According to the above data one-fourth of that number, about 4000, will have had adequate preparation in the social studies for their life work as American citizens, while 11,000 will have had only the preparation given in the one year of United States History, or in addition one year of some other social science that bears little logical connection with the United States History. If the State Board of Education did not require it, it seems very likely that many would not get even this little. This shows us conclusively that though enough social science work is offered in our high schools, the pupils are not getting it under our present organization of courses and requirements.

After making these surveys and finding out what is being done and what is not being done, we set ourselves the task of working out a minimum amount of social science work that will prepare the high school graduate adequately for the intelligent participation in the practical duties of American citizenship. The three-year block outlined and recommended in this report is the result.

While we believe that every course offered in the curriculum, if properly taught, will make the student a better citizen, we also believe that it is the special function of the social studies to train for citizenship. They will do what no other studies or subjects will do.

The courses we are recommending seem to be in accord with the best throughout the country. We found in the eastern and middle states just about the same chaotic conditions existing and the same effort being made to reorganize and determine upon the minimum essentials for a course in social studies in the high schools. We found very strong tendencies there to adopt the same three-year block for the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth years that we are recommending.

It has been adopted for the entire state of Pennsylvania, while eleven other states, New York, Massachusetts, Virginia, West Virginia, Ohio, Illinois, Iowa, Minnesota, Maryland, and Missouri, have adopted American History for the eleventh year and Problems of Democracy for the twelfth year, as we are recommending. In three states, Illinois, Iowa, and Missouri, World History may be substituted for the two years of European History.

Some have suggested that we substitute community civics in the ninth year for Problems in Democracy in the twelfth year. Our answer is that the pupil in the ninth year is too immature to grasp what the adult citizen should know. Civic responsibility rests primarily with the adult and not with adolescent boys and girls. That is why the problems of democracy should come in the twelfth year, so that the high school graduate will get these adult experiences and go out with them fresh in his mind. Pupils in the seventh, eighth, and ninth years can grasp

the more elementary principles of community duties, but not the stern realities of state, national, and international problems.

We must look for intelligent leadership from those who graduate from high school and not from those who drop out, and just because some drop out and never get the proper training is no reason why we should fail to give the proper training to those who do graduate. According to the law of California, civics must be taught in the eighth year in all schools. This must necessarily be largely community civics or citizenship in a local and elementary form.

This plan is not set forth as perfect. Nor are the social science teachers presenting it because they want to take an undue share of the pupil's time or rob other departments. They are working for increased efficiency in social science work to the end that the high schools may more fully meet the demands made upon them for more efficient citizens. This, we believe, if adopted, will be the beginning of a new era in social science teaching in California.

We believe there is a strong sentiment among the social science teachers and many administrators of the state in favor of such a course. Dr. Bobbitt, who has been working out a curriculum for the Los Angeles schools, says the social studies are the most important in the entire curriculum. He and a committee of high school teachers have worked out and recommended a social science course for the schools of that city. While the work they recommend for the ninth and tenth years differs from the recommendation made by the Social Science Teachers' Association of Southern California, their recommendation for the eleventh and twelfth years is exactly the same. In 1921, Mr. H. F. Taggart, of Santa Maria Union High School, worked out and placed in that high school a course in which the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth years' work is the same as here recommended, except that he puts one-half year English History in the first half of the eleventh year.—(HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, November, 1921, p. 281.)

Recently a Social Science Teachers' Association has been organized among the teachers around the Bay. They are working on the same problem. They sent a representative to our last meeting in April, at which meeting this report was adopted. All indications now are that they will adopt this same course or one very nearly the same.

This will easily pave the way for the adoption of the three-year minimum in social studies for graduation from all the high schools of the State. This makes a uniform standard for all high schools as a minimum.

I know there are those who claim that standardization and uniformity destroy freedom, originality, and initiative of the individual and thus stop progress. Usually those who harp on this string want freedom to do very poor work that begins nowhere, goes everywhere, and gets nowhere.

Standardization and uniformity mean the combined best judgment of all working in the same direction. Any one can use his freedom and originality to work out new methods and to improve and

revise the courses. Surely, if there is anything worth while in a subject there ought to be some things that will be equally worth while and essential to all, whether they be in the Pasadena High School or the Chico High School. If there is any standard of action for adult citizenship, there ought to be some things that all should learn in common.

We are also conscious of the fact that there is an administrative problem in this question. It is not my purpose to discuss that here. Yet I am sure things can be adjusted so that the question of administration can be handled. It is largely a question of what is most worth while to the student in preparing him for the responsibilities and duties of citizenship.

We find many who want this or that subject in the first year high school or junior high school so as to reach more pupils. As a result, we find almost every social science subject taught in the first year in some high school, from citizenship and ancient history to United States History, economics and sociology. (See Research Bulletin, University of Illinois.)

We cannot put everything in the first year. Let us put there some things that belong there and which fit the mental development of the pupils there and save some for his more mature years. To sum up we find:

1. That a sufficient number and variety of social science courses are now offered in our high schools, but as now organized and required the pupils are not getting sufficient training in them for the efficient performance of the duties of citizenship.

2. There is little or no uniformity in content of courses, year offered, and courses required, except in United States History, which is required by law.

3. As evidence that pupils do not get sufficient training in the social sciences we give the following figures:

One-third of the high school graduates have no preparation or background in European History for the proper understanding of American history.

That 31 per cent. of the graduates have had one year of European history and for 68 per cent. of these that year was ancient history, which gives a very poor foundation for understanding our own history.

That only 15 per cent. to 25 per cent. get any social science work after taking the American history.

That less than one-fourth of the graduates of the California high schools have an adequate training in the social studies.

4. What is the remedy? Determine a minimum amount of work that will give an adequate training and require that amount of all graduates.

5. How to determine this minimum? This assumes that the high schools are training for citizenship, or, as Dr. Lange puts it, "training for democracy." That certain civic, economic, and social functions are essential to his well-being and to the well-being of society.

6. Therefore, we set up certain fundamental ob-

jectives or purposes to be attained: (a) To give the pupil that minimum acquaintance with contemporary society, its underlying principles, its development, and its present tendencies which are indispensable to good citizenship. (b) To develop a lasting disposition to base decisions upon unprejudiced study of all relevant facts available, to sympathize with conflicting points of view, and to act in the best interests of the group. (c) To contribute to the cultural growth of the student by enlarging his experiences and stimulating his imagination.

7. What is the minimum that will do this? This is determined on the principle that the pupil must know three things about any historical event or social situation:

- (a) He must know the causes, the background, its origin.

- (b) He must know the facts of the event itself.

- (c) He must know the results or the problems that grow out of that particular event.

8. Therefore, we propose:

- (a) One year of world history to give the pupil this background, to explain the tendencies of those phases of contemporary civilization of more than national scope, to make American history more intelligible through the study of international cause and effect, and a comparison of institutions and to give him an international mind. To give him a knowledge of the great world movements.

- (b) One year of American history to give the facts of the great historical events, the American people and the American government, its ideals and institutions, their growth and development and present status. To awaken in him a pride and a love of his country through the glorious achievements of Americans. To train him to think correctly in matters historical, political, and social. To arouse in him a desire to contribute his best service to his community, the nation, and the world.

- (c) A year in the Problems of American Democracy. To acquaint him with the civic, economic and social problems of his country and his day. To create in him a civic conscience. To acquaint him with the big problems of adult life.

Dr. Bobbitt says the way to determine the content of a course is to find out the activities of the adult in that field, and then make those activities the content or subject matter of the course. This is what should be done for the twelfth year work.

We believe this three-year block worked out as it has been on these principles makes a continuous, unified, and logical course, and will give the pupil a much better preparation for the duties of citizenship than what he is now getting under the present organization and requirements.

Furthermore, our position is strengthened by the fact that social science teachers and curriculum makers in the eastern and middle states, as well as here in California, so far as we have data, unanimously agree with us in our recommendation for the eleventh and twelfth years, and very largely in the tenth year.

Therefore, we ask the principals to approve this course for the high schools of California. We be-

lieve a great step in advance will be made if this plan is adopted. As the president of an educational meeting in New York said the other day, "Leave your hobby horses outside and pull together." It is sure we will have to pull together or pull separately. If we pull separately, somebody will have to hang. Who will it be?

REPORT OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION OF SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA.

A SUGGESTED THREE-YEAR SOCIAL SCIENCE COURSE AS A MINIMUM REQUIREMENT FOR GRADUATION FROM ALL HIGH SCHOOLS IN CALIFORNIA.

PROCEDURE OF THE COMMITTEE.

The Association has been working for more than a year on a revision and reorganization of the social science work in the high schools. The work has been done by five committees, who reported to the Association, which, after full discussion, unanimously adopted the report. These committees were:

First, a survey committee, which made three surveys. One to determine what courses are now being offered in the high schools of California. One to determine how much social science work other than one year of United States History and Civics required by law the graduates of our high schools get. And the third to determine the status of the social science work in the high schools of the eastern and middle states. Miss Hettie A. Withey, of the Chaffey Union High School and Junior College, made the first two surveys, and Mr. W. T. Boyce, Dean of Fullerton Junior College, made the third.

The second committee prepared a course in World History for the tenth year: Mr. Homer Foster, Chairman, Anaheim High School; Dr. Frank J. Klingberg, University of California, Southern Branch; Miss Charlotte M. Lord, Polytechnic High School, Los Angeles.

The third committee prepared a course in American history for the eleventh year: Mr. Leon Yakeley, Chairman, Pasadena High School; Dr. R. G. Cleland, Occidental College; Mr. H. L. Wilson, South Pasadena High School.

The fourth committee prepared the course in Problems of American Democracy for the twelfth year: Mr. James B. Newell, Chairman, Franklin High School, Los Angeles; Dr. E. S. Bogardus, University of Southern California; Miss Anna Stewart, Los Angeles High School; Mr. Charles F. Seymour, Long Beach High School.

The fifth committee was a correlating committee, which unified the work of the other committees: Mr. L. L. Beeman, President of the Association, Chairman, Santa Ana High School and Junior College; Mr. R. L. Ashley, Pasadena High School, and the chairmen of each of the other committees.

It is to be understood that the work provided in this report is suggested as the minimum uniform and standard requirement for graduation from high school. But any high school shall be free to offer any additional courses that its needs demand. The

Association and Committees have had valuable suggestions and encouragement from State Superintendent Will C. Wood, Commissioner A. C. Olney, and Professor C. E. Rugh, of the University of California and Director of the work of the Committee of Fifteen.

REPORT ON SOCIAL SCIENCE TRAINING IN CALIFORNIA HIGH SCHOOLS.

The Southern California Social Science Association has, since March, 1922, been conducting a varied study of social science work in the high schools of southern California in particular, but including schools of varied size and type in other sections of the state. Data from these studies form the basis for some conclusions on conditions prevailing in California high schools in the work in social science. Before offering these conclusions and the recommendations growing out of them, the outline of the studies and the outstanding data derived should be presented.

Survey of April, 1922.

In the first survey the association especially desired to determine the *degree of uniformity* in courses and the *tendencies* in quantity, organization, and requirements. The survey organized data on courses, requirements, election, and relative status of the subjects given in the twelfth year. The data secured from forty-three representative high schools in southern and central California give considerable significance to the conclusions it warrants. That portion of the data of value to this report and to which conclusions presented later will return is, for reference, reproduced below.

COURSES.

| Courses Offered | Year Offered | No. Schools Offering | Per Cent. Offering | No. Requiring | Per Cent. Requiring |
|---|--------------|----------------------|--------------------|---------------|---------------------|
| 1. Ancient and Med. and Mod. Hist..... | 9 & 10 | 20 | 46 | 0 | 0 |
| 2. Early and Mod. European Hist..... | 9 & 10 | 15 | 34.8 | 0 | 0 |
| *3. World Hist..... | 10 or 11 | 2 | 4 | 0 | 0 |
| †4. Amer. Hist. or Amer. Hist. and Civics.. | 11 or 12 | 43 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| 5. Civics, ½ year..... | 12 | 18 | 41 | 10 | 23 |
| 6. Economics, ½ year... | 12 | 21 | 48 | 4 | 9 |
| 7. Social Problems, ½ year | 12 | 15 | 34.8 | 2 | 4 |
| 8. Citizenship | 9 & 10 | 12 | 27 | 5 | 11 |

* Schools in Los Angeles County have adopted this course since the above data was collected.

† This course is required by law in California. Latin American history, Current history, and English history were offered in one or two schools each.

Combinations.

The combinations of economics and social problems prevail when American history and civics are offered in the eleventh year; that of civics and economics or social problems when American history only is given. The data for the combinations is as follows:

1. Social Problems and Economics offered by 25 per cent. schools.

2. Civics and Economics offered by 30 per cent. schools.

3. Civics and Social Problems offered by 9 per cent. schools.

Pupils elect the non-required courses in these percentages of those eligible:

1. Economics, 49 per cent.

2. Civics, 46 per cent.

3. Social Problems, 53 per cent.

Survey of March, 1923.

In collaboration with the Committee of Fifteen of the High School Teachers' Association the Social Science Association has completed another survey of the work in social science. This survey includes schools from all parts of California. Its purpose was to determine the *quantity* of social science actually taken by pupils in the secondary school and to procure data on the *continuity* and consistency of the courses taken. Questionnaires were sent to one hundred and nine schools and replies from *sixty* form the basis for some reasonable conclusions. Tabulation on the returns is thus offered.

In March, 1923, in 60 high schools in California there were:

8937 pupils taking American history or American history and Civics.

3052 (34.1 per cent.) taking above courses had had no European history.

2754 (30.8 per cent.) taking above courses had had one year European.

2399 (26.9 per cent.) taking above courses had had two years European.

2166 (24.3 per cent.) taking above courses had had Citizenship or Community Civics. Of these, 40 per cent. had one semester and 20 per cent. had one year.

1886 (68.4 per cent.) taking *one* year European had *Ancient History*.

REPORT ON SOCIAL SCIENCE COURSES IN MIDDLE WESTERN AND EASTERN HIGH SCHOOLS.

Mr. W. T. Boyce, of the Fullerton Junior College, has presented his survey of "Social Science in Middle Western and Eastern High Schools" to this Association. It is important for the comparison of tendencies in those sections with tendencies in California. Facts and conclusions from it which are pertinent to our problems are:

1. "There seems to be general dissatisfaction with the courses as they are now offered. This is evidenced . . . in the fact that a large number of committees are at work on the subject of reorganization."

2. Such committees have been at work in the important states of New York, New Jersey, and Illinois.

3. "The Illinois committee in reporting recommends *General history* for the tenth year."

4. "*Advanced civics* has been pretty largely separated from *American history*."

5. "In the Middle West a large proportion of the schools give . . . a year of American history, followed by a year of economics and civics."

6. Pennsylvania and New York offer American history in the eleventh year with civics, economics, or social problems in the twelfth. Pennsylvania gives *General European history* in the tenth year.

7. In 1923, *New York* adopted the *two-year* course of American history, civics, and economics. When schools do not offer four years of social science "they are permitted to offer, in the Freshman or Sophomore year, a general survey course" in European history.

8. "It may be said that there is a strong and widespread tendency toward the adoption of a course consisting of:

1. "Community Problems.

2. "General or World History.

3. "American History.

4. "American Problems."

CONCLUSIONS.

The surveys made show a general lack of uniformity, completeness, and continuity in social science study at a time of increasing complexity in the duties of citizenship. It is everywhere conceded that the schools must attempt to give an understanding of American institutions and the fundamentals of intelligent citizenship in which attempt the social science studies must assume the most considerable share of responsibility. Needs are not now being met for:

1. CONDITIONS IN CALIFORNIA HIGH SCHOOLS GIVE NO POSSIBILITY OF PROVIDING THE NECESSARY EUROPEAN BACKGROUND when 26 per cent. only make a continuous study and 34 per cent. none. In particular, we must be concerned with the waste which occurs among those who take but one year of European history and for whom that year is Ancient history. That condition prevails with 68 per cent. of the one-year group, a fact which leads to the inevitable conclusion that if one year is to be taken it should be of such continuity and extent as to give a connected European background preceding American history.

Public events and problems prove the necessity for a comprehension of the course of human development and the fundamentals of European contributions to it. A course in world history would supply those fundamentals and we would no longer send out 75 per cent. of our pupils with none or an inadequate preparation.

2. Free election is now often impossible because of the demands of special courses, which sacrifice citizenship training to vocational. The examination of twenty-five representative courses of study shows six schools in which election is impossible in the courses in mechanic arts and engineering, and in a like number it is discouraged by definite recommendation of subjects. The pupil is often, therefore, in no position to meet his need by election even if he chooses to do so.

3. The situation is that excepting American history considerably less than half our high school pupils receive citizenship training through a connected study of social relations. This must be so even with a generous interpretation of the data when, as our first survey shows, but 41 per cent. of the schools

offer a semester of government in addition to American history and but 23 per cent. require it; or when 34 per cent. offer a semester of social problems; or when but half offer economics and but 9 per cent. require it.

The figures in American history display the growing tendency to offer it in the eleventh year in order to provide the position which is properly afforded the study of governmental, economic, and social institutions. Our surveys show a marked and unfortunate lack of uniformity, but they also indicate centers about which uniformity may crystallize. Both the California and Eastern data show an unmistakable trend in opinion. The figures show no present standardization in organization, but they indicate the realization of a need—the need of better understanding of our American institutions and citizenship responsibility. The fact remains that, at present, about half the pupils leave the school without this directed training.

This Association is convinced that nothing less than requirement will effect that uniformity and substantial change which the situation demands.

Recommendations.

Holding the belief that the quantity and character of social science training now being received by pupils in the secondary schools is inadequate, whereas it should be of sufficient extent and proper connection to approach the preparation for citizenship which conditions demand; and in view of the recognition of the need evidenced in reorganizations and additions to curricula, the Southern California Social Science Association recommends that the state require for graduation from the high school a three-year minimum course in social science for whose first year a two-year course in European history may be substituted.

The aims and outline of the three-year course the Association herewith respectfully presents.

HETTIE A. WITHEY,
Chaffey Union High School.

TENTH YEAR HISTORY.

GENERAL STATEMENT OF COMMITTEE.

16 APRIL, 1923.

MR. L. L. BEEMAN, Chairman, Correlating Committee, etc.

Your committee on purpose and content of a one-year world history course reports as follows:

We suggest the name World History. The course is designed to require five periods of recitation per week for a school year of approximately forty weeks, to be offered in the tenth year of the public school, and to be required for graduation of all students who do not complete two years of study in European or Medieval and Modern history. Since it is far from being an adequate substitute for the two-year European history course, it should not be allowed to supplant the latter in the curriculum of any high school large enough to offer both courses or in the schedule of any student of such a school who would normally pursue the complete course.

The objects of this course, as we see them, are as follows: (1) To explain, and indicate the tendencies of, those phases of contemporary civilization of more than national scope; (2) to make American history more intelligible through the study of international cause and effect and a comparison of institutions; and (3) to prepare Americans for intelligent control of their foreign relations. We believe, furthermore, that world history is especially adapted to the third purpose, as stated above, of the entire three-year block; viz., "to contribute to the cultural growth of the student by enlarging his experience and stimulating his imagination."

In order to avoid the overcondensation which results from an attempt to compress the contents of the longer course into a year, we have chosen the Germanic invasions as the beginning of the narrative and planned for a descriptive account of the cultural heritage from the prehistoric, the ancient Oriental, and the classical periods. Events and persons should, with perhaps a few exceptions, be omitted from this introduction. The narrative having once begun should be balanced, the tendency to under-value the medieval being guarded against. It differs from the traditional history of medieval and modern Europe (1) by the presence of the ancient contribution, (2) by its greater departure from the merely narrative-political, and (3) especially by its world, rather than a narrowly European, viewpoint.

(Signed)

HOMER FOSTER, Anaheim Union High School.

ROSCOE ASHLEY, Pasadena High School.

FRANK J. KLINGBERG, University of California, Southern Branch.

CHARLOTTE M. LORD, Los Angeles Polytechnic High School.

OUTLINE—WORLD HISTORY.

Title—World History.

Basis.

1. Prescribed for tenth-year students who do not take two years of European history. The Committee is strongly opposed to any substitution of World History for the two-year course.

2. School year of forty weeks.

3. Text of approximately 750 pages. No satisfactory text is now available.

Nature of work.

1. Descriptive introduction to 476 A. D.

2. Narrative account since 476 A. D.

3. Emphasis on world viewpoint.

4. Divisions of work and approximate time apportionment shown in the body of this outline.

Texts.

The Committee suggests that schools now having adoptions continue them in the hope that a more satisfactory text will be published soon.

Recent texts which attempt to cover the field with varying degrees of period emphasis:

Elson: *Modern Times and the Living Past*.

American Book Co., 1921.

Robinson, Breasted, Smith: *Europe Before the Eighteenth Century; Recent European History*.

- 2 Vol., Ginn and Co., 1921.
 Webster: *World History*.
 Heath, 1921.
 West: *World Progress*.
 Allyn and Bacon, 1922.
 New edition on press.
 West: *Modern Progress*.
 Allyn and Bacon, 1920.
 Hayes and Moon: *Modern History*.
 Macmillan, 1923.
 Ashley: (in preparation).
- Part I. Early Civilization—treatment mainly descriptive.
- I. Prehistoric man (1½ weeks).
 A. Sources of our knowledge.
 B. Man's place in nature.
 C. Stages of development.
 D. Social organization—late prehistoric.
 E. Contributions.
 F. Races and languages—distribution.
- II. Oriental Civilizations (1½ weeks).
 A. Regions.
 1. Egypt and Western Asia.
 2. India.
 3. The Far East.
 B. Social and political organization.
 1. Beginning of the state.
 2. Type of empire.
 3. Place of custom in Oriental life.
 C. Contributions.
 1. Material and economic.
 2. Scientific.
 3. Artistic.
 4. Religious.
- III. Greek Civilization (2 weeks).
 A. Social and political organization.
 1. Family and tribe.
 2. City-state—advantages.
 3. Colonies, empire, leagues, and confederations.
 C. Contributions.
 1. Art.
 2. Languages and literature.
 3. Philosophy.
 4. Science.
 5. Religion.
- IV. Roman Civilization (2 weeks).
 A. Social and political organization.
 1. City-state—growth and government.
 2. World-state—growth and government.
 a. Diversity and irresponsible provincial government—later Republic.
 b. Growing centralization and efficient provincial government—Early Empire.
 c. Over-centralization—Later Empire.
 B. Contributions.
 1. The imperial idea.
 2. Roman law—content and place in life of people.
 3. Latin and the Romanic languages.
 4. Rome's work as a builder.
 5. Rome's work as a distributor and protector of ancient civilization.
- V. Christianity (1 week).
 A. Origin.
 B. Spread of faith.
 C. Growth of organization.
 E. Growth of religious and temporal power.
- Part II. The Middle Age.
- VI. Period of migration (2 weeks).
 A. Roman and Teuton.
 B. Charlemagne.
 C. Eastern Empire and its enemies.
 D. Rise and spread of Mohammedanism.
- VII. Feudal period (5 weeks).
 A. Feudal system.
 B. Medieval church.
 C. Holy Roman Empire.
 D. Crusades.
 E. Medieval towns.
 F. Art.
 G. Intellectual life.
 H. Beginnings of national states—monarchy and parliaments.
 1. France.
 2. Spain.
 3. England (to 1485).
- VIII. Renaissance (5 weeks).
 A. Causes of awakening.
 B. Lines of awakening.
 1. Art.
 2. Literature and languages.
 a. Humanism.
 b. Vernaculars.
 3. Science and invention.
 4. Discovery.
 5. Religion—Reformation and Counter-reformation.
 (Religious wars to be treated with dynastic wars in Chapter IX.)
- Part III. The Modern Age.
- IX. Autocracy (4 weeks).
 A. Causes.
 B. Autocracy in the various countries.
 1. England.
 a. Tudors—tendency towards absolutism.
 b. Stuarts—defeat of absolutism.
 c. Early Hanovers—the cabinet system.
 2. France.
 3. Prussia.
 4. Russia.
 C. Colonial expansion in the 16th and 17th centuries.
 1. Motives.
 a. Imperial.
 b. Commercial.
 c. Home seeking.
 d. Religious.
 2. Spain and Portugal.
 3. Holland, England, France, and Russia.
- X. Revolution (4 weeks).
 A. Old Régime.
 B. Intellectual revolution (1660-1789).
 C. Political and social revolution in the United States and France (1763-1815).
 D. Economic revolution (1763-).

- XI. Nationalism and democracy (5 weeks).
 - A. Reaction following the Congress of Vienna.
 - B. National-democratic uprisings of 1820, 1830, and 1848.
 - C. Conservative nationalism—France, Italy, and Germany.
 - D. Liberal reform movements in Western Europe.
 - E. Socialism and social reform movements.
 - F. Autocracy versus democracy in Russia.
 - G. Struggle of subject nationalities for self-determination in Eastern Europe.

Part IV. The Present Age.

- XII. Intellectual development (1 week).
 - A. Growth of science.
 - B. Types of literature.
 - C. Characteristic music.
 - D. Religious and philosophic tendencies.
 - E. Agencies.
 - 1. Of education—public school, press, theatre, church.
 - 2. Of investigation.
- XIII. Imperialism and world politics (3 weeks).
 - A. Causes.
 - B. Various regions.
 - 1. Asiatic awakening.
 - 2. Struggle of the powers in Asia.
 - 3. Partition of Africa.
 - 4. Self-governing dominions.
 - 5. Insular possessions not self-governing.
 - 6. Economic imperialism in the Western Hemisphere.
- XIV. World Upheaval (2 weeks).
 - A. Causes of modern warfare.
 - B. World War.
 - C. Peace treaties.
 - D. Post-war history.
- XV. Conditions and problems (1 week).
 - A. In the various countries.
 - B. General problems of political democracy.
 - C. Economic conditions and problems before and after the war.
 - D. Social betterment.
 - E. The international problem.

SUMMARY.

The committee on tenth-year history recommends a course in world history to be required of students who do not take two years of European history. The narrative, which begins with the Germanic invasions, is preceded by a descriptive account of ancient civilization. The treatment of the various phases of our civilization should be balanced and the world viewpoint maintained. It is strongly urged that the one-year course should not be allowed to displace the two-year one. Since there is no textbook completely conforming to this outline, schools are advised to retain present texts until a more satisfactory book is published.

ELEVENTH YEAR.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON UNITED STATES HISTORY COURSE.

Your committee believes that the plan of giving a full year to the study of United States history is

an eminently wise one. With ample time at his disposal the teacher will be able to devote more time to the discussion of the great issues that have arisen in our country's history.

Since good teaching is so vitally dependent upon the realizing of concrete objectives, the committee feels it necessary to formulate the main objectives to be followed in the teaching of United States history. These we hold to be the following:

First. To prepare the student for intelligent citizenship by fixing his attention upon those outstanding living forces which operate in our country's history.

Second. To awaken in him pride in and a love of his country through a study of the glorious achievements of Americans.

Third. To train him to think correctly in matters historical, political, and social.

Fourth. To arouse in him a desire to contribute of his best in service to his community, the nation, and the world.

We desire to submit a brief and suggestive outline of the main essentials in United States history. We hope the teacher may find this helpful in the handling of the subject matter of this course.

The time allotted to each division is merely suggestive.

OUTLINE OF UNITED STATES HISTORY.

The Colonial Period (6 weeks).

1. European background of American history.
2. Discovery and exploration of America.
3. Geography and early inhabitants of America.
4. Principles of English colonial system.
 - a. Comparison with colonial systems of France and Spain.
5. Beginnings of American economic, political, and social institutions.
6. Struggle with France for North America.
7. Growth of American unity.

Formation of a Union (8 weeks).

1. The new British imperial policy.
2. Clash of opinion on political and trade rights.
3. The Declaration of Independence.
4. The Revolutionary War.
5. Failure of the Confederation.
6. Formation of the Constitution.
7. Rise of party government.
8. Tasks and problems of the new government.
 - a. Internal.
 - b. Commercial and international.

Development of the Nation (5 weeks).

1. Growth of a national consciousness.
 - a. War of 1812.
 - b. Decisions of Chief Justice Marshall.
 - c. Monroe Doctrine.
 2. Development of the West.
 - a. Louisiana Purchase.
 3. Jacksonian Democracy.
- ##### *Sectional Conflict and Reconstruction (6 weeks).*
1. Development of the slavery issue.
 - a. Slavery before 1820.
 - b. Cotton and demand for more slave territory.
 - c. Missouri Compromise.

- d. Garrison and the abolitionists.
- e. Mexican War and Compromise of 1850.
- f. Popular Sovereignty vs. Dred Scott Decision.
- g. Lincoln and the new Republican party.
- 2. Divergent economic interests of North and South.
- 3. The Civil War.
- 4. Reconstruction problems.
- Economic Development and National Growth*
(7 weeks).
- 1. Agricultural development of the South and West.
- 2. Industrial development of the East.
- 3. Effect of economic conditions upon American politics.
- 4. Roosevelt and his policies.
- Progressive Democracy and World Affairs* (6 weeks).
- 1. America a world power.
- 2. New political and industrial democracy.
- 3. President Wilson and the World War.

The committee suggests that the following topics be taken up at the appropriate times in connection with the United States History:

- 1. *Political.* Political parties; workings of the constitution; civil service; growth of American ideals and ideas; expansion and foreign relations.
- 2. *Economic.* Tariff; transportation; currency; trusts; conservation; commerce; labor movement; agrarian movement.
- 3. *Racial.* Negro; Indian; Oriental; European.
- 4. An adequate study of California history.

MR. LEON YAKELEY, Chairman, Pasadena High School.

DR. R. G. CLELAND, Occidental College.

MR. H. L. WILSON, South Pasadena High School.

PROBLEMS OF DEMOCRACY—TWELFTH YEAR.

GENERAL STATEMENTS.

1. The consideration of *normal* civic, economic, and social life shall be a basic principle; with the treatment of abnormal pathological as subordinate to this principle.

2. This shall be the underlying principle in the teachers' viewpoint in the daily conduct of his classes, rather than subject material to be dwelt upon at length.

3. The treatment throughout shall be from the standpoint of group relationships and responsibilities of the individual pupils.

FIRST SEMESTER—GOVERNMENT.

1. General Statement: The main theme in the teachers' point of view, in government, shall be an emphasis upon law and justice.

CONTENT.

1. Mechanism of government: The Executive, Legislative, and Judicial Departments of the State and Federal Governments. Present Forms of Municipal Government. Rural Local Government.

2. Problems: Law and Crime. The Police Power. Public Education. Public Health. Revenue and Taxation. Government Finance. Government of Dependencies.

SECOND SEMESTER—SOCIAL ECONOMY.

1. This course shall include a simple statement of the fundamental principles of economic life, including such subjects as production, exchange, distribution, and consumption. It shall include a study of capital, labor, wages, interest, profits, rent, profit sharing, co-operation, the economic functions of government, and industrial reform. Such subjects as transportation, trusts, etc., given a purely historical consideration in the eleventh year, will here be presented from the economic standpoint.

2. This course shall include a study of the nature, purposes, and problems of the family groups, the play group, the neighborhood, community, and racial group. It is through these primary groups that practically all economic, political, social, and religious values are determined. Their study gives the social side of the course a constructive basis.

These subjects include the following topics:

Child Labor. Women in Industry. Housing Problems. Standards of Living. Unemployment. Marriage and Divorce. Commercialized Play. Public Playgrounds and Parks. Charity. Defectives in Society. Industrial Risks and Social Insurance. Assimilation and Americanization. Social Reform.

AVAILABLE TEXTS.

1—Combination of government, economics, and sociology.

Williamson: Problems in American democracy. Heath.

Morehouse and Graham: American problems. Ginn.

Munro and Ozanna: Social civics. Macmillan.

Burch and Patterson: Problems of American democracy. Macmillan.

2—Government.

Forman: The American democracy. Century.

Reed: Form and functions of American government. World.

Hill: Community civics. Ginn.

Dunn: Community civics. Heath.

McGruder: Government in 1923. Macmillan.

Ames and Eldred: Community civics. Allyn and Bacon.

Long: Government of the people. Scribners.

3—Economics.

Burch: American economic life. Macmillan.

Bullock: The elements of economics. Silver Burdett.

Thompson: Elementary economics. Sanborn.

Marshall and Lyon: Our Economic organization. Macmillan.

Lapp: Economics and the community. Century.

Carver: Elementary economics. Ginn & Co.

Laing: Introduction to economics. Gregg.

4—Sociology.

Burch and Patterson: American social problems. Macmillan.

Ellwood: Sociology and modern social problems. American Book Co.

Towne: Social problems. Macmillan.

Stewart: Social problems. Allyn and Bacon.

RESOLUTION ADOPTED BY THE SOCIAL STUDIES CLUB

OF THE SAN FRANCISCO BAY REGION.

Oakland, May 5, 1923.

1. We endorse the movement for better and more continuous and cumulative instruction in the junior and senior high schools in line with advanced ideas and conceptions of the social studies as a medium for citizenship training.

2. We endorse the movement for a prescribed three-year unit of work in social studies in the high schools of California.

3. We endorse the following three-year unit of prescribed work in the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth years of the senior high schools of California:

Tenth year—A Survey of the Development of World History; with emphasis upon European.

Eleventh year—A Survey of the Development of American Institutions; American History, related governmental problems, and world associations.

Twelfth year—Problems of American Democracy; Political, Economic, and Social.

4. We recommend that the proposed three-year unit of social studies be *broadly* construed and outlined as to scope, content, and method, and not too rigidly organized.

5. We recommend that a representative committee of teachers of social studies be appointed to work out a *suggestive* course of social studies covering the above recommendations for the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth years of senior high school.

Signed:

ROY T. GRANGER, President.

A. A. GRAY, Vice-President.

CRYSTAL HARTFORD, Secretary.

Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROF. J. M. GAMBRILL, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

Jay's Treaty: A Study in Commerce and Diplomacy.

By Samuel Flagg Bemis, Ph.D., Professor of History in Whitman College. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1923. 388 pp. \$3.25.

This is the work which was awarded the \$3000 prize offered by the Knights of Columbus Historical Commission. We find ourselves in entire agreement with the opinion of Dr. Gaillard Hunt, Chairman of the Board of Judges, who writes that this is "an historical monograph which is not only a credit to American scholarship, but a notable contribution to American history."

The work is the result of indefatigable and intelligent research, both in the archives of several foreign countries and in those in Washington. As a result of the investigation of the manuscript sources both in government depositories and in private collections, particularly in Great Britain, much new and very important material has been discovered that throws a great deal of light on the subject.

The narrative is presented in a compact, judicial, and altogether convincing manner, the style throughout being clear and interesting. Professor Bemis traces the diplomatic relations, both regular and irregular, between the United States and Great Britain from the close of Revolutionary War to the ratification of the Jay treaty. His survey of the commercial relations of the two countries and the Indian and Boundary questions, as well as the European situation during the years from 1783 to 1794, furnishes an illuminating background to an understanding of the many and harassing difficulties that confronted the young Republic in its efforts to extract a treaty from the British Government.

Among the new and most valuable material brought to light is the correspondence of George Beckwith, the "informal" agent of the British, and also that of George Hammond, the first British Minister to the United States. From this and other material the author clearly shows how Alexander Hamilton

undermined Jefferson's official influence, as he feared that a war with Great Britain would reduce our custom receipts to such an extent as to jeopardize his financial measures and might even result in the overthrow of the new nation. The influence of Hamilton also in shaping the terms of the treaty was so great that Professor Bemis remarks that "any praise or blame for the instrument must be given to him." "More aptly the treaty might be called Hamilton's Treaty."

The text is supplemented by four appendices, containing besides other important source material a "Project of Heads of Proposal to be made to Mr. Jay," from a manuscript in the Grenville papers, and an illuminating comparison of Jay's draft of September 30, 1794, with the treaty as signed on November 19. There is an impressive bibliography to both manuscript and printed material. The work is documented throughout. The typographical work reaches a high standard of excellence.

HERMAN V. AMES.

University of Pennsylvania.

The Story of Mankind (School Edition). By Hendrik Willem Van Loon. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1923. 492 pp. \$2.20.

When Mr. Van Loon's book appeared almost simultaneously with that of H. G. Wells, it shared with the latter the commendation of reviewers, had a very large sale, and finally won the distinction of an award of the John Newberry Medal from the Children's Librarians section of the American Library Association. Now as an outcome of this success and praise a school edition of the book appears. Few important changes will be found,—a word altered here and there, a picture omitted once in a while, some of the fine colored prints reproduced in black and white. An extended anecdote concerning the Baroness von Krüdener is wisely left out, also digressions introducing two chapters, but the omission

of the delightful "Animated Chronology" ending the earlier volume is much to be regretted. Fortunately, Miss Power's valuable reading list has been retained just as it was, and in addition the author has appended a number of suggestions as to methods for vitalizing the history lesson, as well as sundry questions to be put to the class.

The great contribution of Van Loon, many times stressed, is the continuity of his story,—his avoidance of a mere disjointed sequence of events told in dreary, lifeless style. Recognizing the justice of this praise, history teachers may still raise a question of the adaptability of the book for use in the classroom. Manifestly it is intended for elementary school children, yet it lacks in very many instances the element that has been regarded as the requisite of history intended for the young, i. e., that it be descriptive, "made up essentially of concrete examples." The author, on the contrary, in his haste to get on with his story, tends very frequently to fall into the habit of generalization, and to presuppose in his youthful readers an undue acquaintance with phrases and facts, a knowledge of which alone could make his statements comprehensible. For instance, the bald statement is given that "Sparta was an armed camp where people were soldiers for the sake of being soldiers" (p. 75), with no details concerning the life of a Spartan boy. Further, it is doubtful whether, without explanation, many children in elementary grades will understand how, by the Bill of Rights, "the king had no right to suspend the laws or permit certain privileged citizens to disobey certain laws" (p. 285). Some inaccuracies occur here and there, which, though not serious, rather jar upon the reader.

Nevertheless, this is not to claim that the book has no place in schools. Its immense sale testifies to a strong appeal. There are vivid and striking passages. The style is direct and personal, though journalistic and too often flippant. The author has called his work an "appetizer," whereby the child shall "get a taste for History and shall ask for more." This may be its chief function after all.

LENA C. VAN BIBBER.

Maryland State Normal School, Towson.

The Letters of Franklin K. Lane. Edited by Anne Wintermute Lane and Louise Herrick Wall. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1922. 472 pp. \$5.00.

Secretary Lane was one of the outstanding figures of the Wilson cabinet, a vigorous and able administrator, a magnetic personality, a man of strong opinions, but fine sensibilities. It is not surprising that the first edition of his *Letters*, edited by his widow, should have been sold out on the day of publication, and that they should have been widely noticed in the newspaper press. They are very interesting reading purely for their revelation of a most engaging personality and for the account they give of Lane's career, the letters having been chosen and arranged to tell his life story. Among his correspondents were Elihu Root, Theodore Roosevelt,

Woodrow Wilson, Walter H. Page, Bryan, and Lansing, though often his letters to relatives and personal friends are of more real interest than those to prominent men.

Naturally the reader turns with special interest to those letters that might reveal more about the inner workings of the cabinet and the events of war and pre-war days. These are rather disappointing as to quantity, though there are many interesting flashes and details. Lane thought the President much too backward and obstinate in those days when the issue of war and peace was still uncertain; he was "slower than a glacier . . . his patriotism is covered over with a film of philosophic humanitarianism that certainly does not make for 'punch' at such a time as this." Lane chafed because the President "said he was not in sympathy with any great preparedness" and because Lane thought America ought to be asserting her rights and repelling insult with much more decision and vigor. "I'm not a pacifist, as you see," he wrote his brother. Yet he had no liking for war and no militarist illusions about it. To a soldier friend he says: "I know how you must feel. Every particle of my own nature rebels against the horror of this war, or of any war, or against the dragooning of military men," and to a newspaper friend he writes: "My spirit does not permit me to give you an interview on the moral benefits of the war," for in spite of some benefits "the war will degrade us. . . . So you must go somewhere else for your uplift stuff."

Throughout all his differences with the President, Mr. Lane pays tribute to the sincerity and high-mindedness of his chief and shows the finest spirit of loyalty. Toward the end he wrote: "I have served him long and faithfully under very adverse circumstances. It is hard for him to get on with anyone who has any will or independent judgment. Yet I am not given to forsaking those to whom I have any duty. However, we shall see." A few weeks later he resigned, in his last official letter to the President taking his stand for the League.

An Economic History of the United States. By Ernest Ludlow Bogart. Longmans, Green and Co., New York, 1922. 593 pp.

As an introduction to the economic history of the United States, Professor Bogart's volume has for many years been known as an authoritative volume with distinct merits as a text. In the latest revision and enlargement the author has introduced many changes of fundamental importance. Originally the volume contained an introduction dealing with "The Land and Its Resources" and "Exploration and Colonization," and four Parts: "Colonial Development"; "Struggle for Commercial and Economic Independence (1763-1808)"; "The Industrial Revolution and the Westward Movement (1808-1860)"; and "Economic Integration and Industrial Organization (1860-1912)." In the present edition the introduction has been eliminated, although the material contained in the introductory chapters has been incorporated elsewhere (in Chapter 1 of Part I and Chapter 32 of Part V). In addition to the original four Parts a

fifth has been added on "Expansion as a World Power" (1900-1922). The period originally covered by Part IV (1860-1912) has been revised to include the years 1860-1900 and much of the material has been shifted to Part V. The extractive industries receive a far more thoroughgoing treatment than before. The economic problems of the World War and the period of readjustment are skilfully handled.

The long bibliography, approximately 700 titles, included in earlier editions, has been omitted from the present revision, a change that is wholly to be deplored, and with no better reason than saving the publishers expense, robs the present edition of one of the best features of the preceding editions. Lists of topics, questions, and references are given at the end of every chapter. New maps have been added which greatly increase the usefulness of the volume as a text.

FELIX FLUGEL.

University of California.

Warfare by Land and Sea. By Eugene S. McCartney. Marshall Jones Company, Boston, 1923. 206 pp. ("Our Debt to Greece and Rome" Series.)

There was a time when kings and battles of long ago comprised the whole of our history. Then the life of the people became important, and social and intellectual affairs found space in the pages of our texts. Last arrived the purely intellectual type of history, a history of thought and culture. All of these make up the record of the past. And we found in the recent World War that, as Steinmetz said, when God holds his assizes and hurls the nations against one another in battle, there is no element of moral, physical, or intellectual strength or weakness that does not weigh in the balance. Let us, then, look upon the history of war as a record of opposing policies, conflicting political ideas or desires brought into opposition, and conflicting military principles of war. Combat becomes then an intellectual study, instead of merely a record of casualties and conquests. Until war vanishes from the face of the earth such a study is sensible and reasonable, for by it the war-time intelligence and the peace-time preparedness of the nation may be more intelligently directed by those who wield the ballot.

For these reasons this volume is seriously recommended to all who read classical texts dealing with combat, for it elucidates and intellectualizes the reading; to all who study the history of ancient times, for it shows the thinking power which was active on the fields of campaign; to all who wish to know the state of the world today, for military principles are part of our existing heritage, a portion of "our debt to Greece and Rome." The book is adequate, well annotated, condensed, and sound in interpretation.

CAPTAIN ELBRIDGE COLBY, U. S. A.

Book Notes

Colonel Charles á Court Repington scored a big success with his diaries in *The First World War*,

as he complacently reminds us in his second series, *After the War* (Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, 1922; 477 pp.; \$5.00). The latter suffers somewhat by comparison with the former, because it does not offer the same possibilities, but its general characteristics are much the same, and again the Colonel offers us stories of his conversations with many high-placed personages and his contacts with some important events. He travelled in France, Italy, Austria, Hungary, Bulgaria, Rumania, and Greece, and attended the Washington Conference, and he entertains, and now and then instructs us, with innumerable anecdotes, gossip stories, vivid personal impressions, witty and perhaps wise comment, all told in the informal style of the diary. He remarks that "Secretary Hughes sunk in thirty-five minutes more ships than all the admirals of the world have destroyed in a cycle of centuries." Washington pleased him in some respects, but New York he detested—"it is all amazing and gargantuan and I cannot imagine anyone wanting to live here. It is one perpetual roar and rush of people and vehicles; surging masses of humanity and trams, cars, taxis, and carts without end. Nothing great in the realm of ideas can ever come from such a restless spot."

Il Risorgimento, edited by Prof. John Van Horne, provides for first-year students of Italian a half dozen readings illustrating the movement for unification and advocacy of the principle of nationalism: a letter of Mazzini, the Hymn of Garibaldi, a speech of Cavour, an extract from Garibaldi's *Memorie*, and a later drama and oration. This was an excellent thing to do. Modern language classes ought to be devoting their time, not simply to "exercises" and literary material, but to readings of actual assistance in connection with their routine work and interests. (University of Chicago Press; 168 pp.; \$1.40.)

Dr. Jacob van der Zee makes an interesting contribution to American social history, as well as to local history, in his *The British in Iowa* (State Historical Society, Iowa City, Iowa; 1922; 340 pp.; \$2.50). Part I gives a general survey in 40 pages of the English, Scotch, Irish, and Welsh elements of the Iowa population; Part II, the remainder of the book and its real story, is concerned with "The British Invasion of Northwestern Iowa," the last part of the state to be occupied by home-seekers. This story begins about half a century ago with the adventures of a young Englishman, member of the varsity crew at Cambridge, who came out to the races in Philadelphia, married an American girl, and established an Iowa colony that for a time included a number of Englishmen of noble blood. Agriculture, business, labor, games, and sports are among the aspects of western life described. The work is fully documented, citations from newspapers being especially frequent, and is provided with an index.

Three or four years ago the publication of *My Diaries* (1888-1914) by Wilfrid Scawen Blunt introduced to Americans a remarkable Englishman, a man of striking independence of mind and character, a

poet but a fighter, a liberal and an anti-imperialist of the most uncompromising sect. Now appears, posthumously, his *Secret History of the Occupation of Egypt* (Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1922; 416 pp.; \$5.00), at a moment when the situation in Egypt gives it a special timeliness, even though its own particular story is chiefly concerned with events of forty or fifty years ago. Blunt knew the Near East intimately from travel and residence, he ardently supported the nationalist group in Egypt against Turks and British alike, and he established warm personal friendships with Egyptian leaders. The record here set down is based partly on memory, but draws heavily on his own diaries and other contemporary documents. The secret influence of the Rothschilds and other bondholders and the weakness of Liberal statesmen too much concerned with politics figure prominently in his narrative. Gladstone is denounced as an "opportunistic statesman," whose test of right and wrong was the "vote of the House" and his highest conception of duty "that of securing a parliamentary majority." The interest of the work lies not only in its contribution to the sources for the history of modern imperialism, or in its direct, well-written, warmly human narrative, but in its revelation of a bold, frank, independent, generous character.

Baron Rosen's *Forty Years of Diplomacy* presents the memoirs of a Russian diplomat who represented the czar in America, Japan, Mexico, Greece, and other countries. He came into close contact with Presidents Roosevelt and Taft, as well as with statesmen of other countries; he took an important part in the negotiations with Japan that preceded the Russo-Japanese War; and he was the colleague of Count Witte in the Portsmouth conference that brought that war to an end. To these interesting experiences he adds observation of the overthrow of the old régime and the Bolshevik revolution. Needless to say, his viewpoint is not liberal, but his tone is not extremist, and his story is both entertaining and instructive. (Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1922; Vol. I, 315 pp.; II, 309 pp.; \$7.50.)

Although the historians of the French Revolution have not failed to tell something of the picturesque part played by women in that stirring period, they have rather curiously neglected to present a really systematic and interpretative account of what may fairly be called the feminist aspects of the Revolution. This task is undertaken by Miss Winifred Stephens, an English woman, in *Women of the French Revolution* (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York; 287 pp.; \$5.00), with most gratifying results. Her work is not only accurate in the main, but scholarly in temper and spirit, well written and entertaining, and illuminating to every student of the French Revolution, and of the history of the feminist movement.

Professor E. P. Cheyney's excellent and well-known *Readings in English History Drawn from the Original Sources* (Ginn & Co., Boston, 1908) has

recently appeared in a new edition (1922; 849 pp.; \$2.64), to which has been added a new chapter of 65 pages on "Social Changes and the Great War." This provides 37 extracts about social legislation, the budget and the Parliament Act, Socialistic tendencies, the great war, and attempts at reconstruction.

Professor Charles E. Hill's *Leading American Treaties* is a very useful supplementary volume for high school or college classes in American history. Fifteen of our most important treaties, from 1778 to 1914, are treated, in each case the chapter giving a story of events leading up to the treaty, an account of the negotiations, and a summary of the provisions of the treaty. The author has done his work with care and has written in a lively and interesting style. There are good bibliographies and an index. (The Macmillan Co., New York, 1922; 399 pp.; \$3.00.)

The industry and scholarship of Mr. R. B. Morgan, an English inspector of schools, have made available an excellent series of *Readings in English Social History* from contemporary literature. Four volumes have been published, devoted to the following periods: from pre-Roman days to 1272 A. D., 1272-1485, 1485-1603, 1603-1688. "Social" is used in a somewhat older sense to refer to food and clothing, games and recreation, laws and customs, methods of warfare on sea and land, pageants and music; in short, the mode of life, but with little attention to economic conditions and changes save as these appear incidentally. Each volume concludes with notes on the sources quoted. Each is supplied with a number of good pictures, drawn from contemporary sources or photographs of existing remains, and there are notes also on these. Where necessary the old texts have been translated or turned into simple modern English. These *Readings* may be used to excellent advantage in American junior or senior high schools, and will add greatly to the interest as well as to the profit of courses in English or European or World history. (Each vol., about 110 or 120 pp.; \$1.40 each; Cambridge University Press, Macmillan Co., New York, 1921-1922.)

Dr. Thatcher Clark's *French Course for Americans* is probably unique. Though making strong claims as a grammar and drill book for students of French in colleges and schools, the book would be of great value to the mature student wishing to take up French rapidly, but thoroughly and well, or to one needing a hasty but adequate review to recover lost ground. Ingenious mechanical devices as well as skilful arrangement and resourceful choice of material are made to contribute to ease, economy, and thoroughness. Every need of the student seems to be covered. (World Book Co., Yonkers, N. Y.; 1922; 411 pp.)

Senator Arthur Capper, of Kansas, in *The Agricultural Bloc*, presents in a brief volume the recent agrarian grievances and the remedies proposed by the group of which he is the leader and spokesman. Among the topics discussed are cost of living, deficiencies of farm finance, transportation, marketing, "protection," co-operation, the program of the Bloc.

and its record in Congress. The tone is moderate. (Harcourt, Brace & Co., New York, 1922; 171 pp.; \$1.25.)

The Coming of Coal (Association Press, New York, 1922; 113 pp.; \$1.00) is a convenient little manual prepared by Robert W. Bruere for the Educational Committee, Commission on the Church and Social Service, of the Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America. It presents in this brief form some interesting and important facts, partly historical, regarding the coal industry, but unfortunately dilutes them with a lot of sentimentality and moralizing. We are presented with a "drama of civilization," in which "acquisitive instinct" and "consciousness of kind" play the parts of villain and hero.

Opinion is at present sharply divided about the teaching of economics in the high school: some of the innovators believing that the study should center about actual problems, and by working on these the student will learn in the best way such economics, sociology, and government as he needs; while others are confident that economics at least can only be mastered by thorough study of principles. Dr. Alvin Johnson's *Introduction to Economics* (1909) appears in a revised edition and the author is "even more firmly convinced than before that the best approach to economics is by way of a thorough study of principles." Most of his text is unchanged, though numerous minor details have been altered, and there is a new chapter on Management. Frequent concrete examples illustrate the principles. This text remains one of the best of the type. (D. C. Heath & Co., New York, 1922; 481 pp.; \$1.50.)

Since it first appeared in 1907, Professor Clive Day's *A History of Commerce* has held first rank as a convenient and scholarly manual of the history of trade from ancient times. It was revised in 1914, though not extensively, but as a result of the tremendous changes wrought by the World War a new and somewhat enlarged edition has now been published (Longmans, Green & Co., New York; 676 pp.; \$2.50). There seem to be no changes in the three Parts dealing with ancient, medieval, and modern commerce; Part IV, Recent Commerce, has been somewhat revised, and its story brought down to 1914, while Part V, United States, has been similarly changed. An entirely new Part VI, World War, 77 pages in length, has been added. For all this we are grateful, but not so much can be said for other features of the new edition. The detailed Table of Contents, showing topics by sections as well as by chapters, has been condensed to show chapter titles only. The 40 pages of citation of authorities by sections disappear. The chapter bibliographies formerly listed prices, which are conveniently revised by omitting them altogether; nor are the references themselves adequately revised in all cases. It is to be hoped that there may be one more revision of this standard work in the near future, one that will combine the good features of the editions of 1914 and 1922.

England Under the Restoration (1660-1668), by Thora G. Stone (Longmans, Green and Company,

London, 1923; xix, 260 pp.; \$3.50) differs from the earlier volumes of this series (University of London Intermediate Source Books of History, No. IV) in that it deals with a much shorter period, but the available primary sources are so much fuller and more numerous than for the Middle Ages that the work cannot be as much more intensive in scope as might be desired. The first eighty-three pages are devoted to source extracts on political history. The far shorter Book II deals with constitutional history, giving extracts under such topical headings as "The King and the Privy Council," "Parliament," etc. Then follow sources on Ecclesiastical History, Naval History, Social and Economic History (only twenty pages), Trade and Colonies, and Scotland and Ireland. The author shows a very good knowledge of the sources for the period and has drawn her material from a great variety of them. Many of the items are of much interest, though a considerable number are inevitably commonplace. A great many are very short. For a university or college course on the Stuart period this book will provide some good illustrative material scattered through much that is ordinary. Not enough is told to enable the reader to get much out of it without good knowledge of the main events. For American high school students the book is too special in character. The general reader with a good treatise on the period at hand will enjoy many of these sources, but one must emphasize the good secondary work to accompany them.—Clarence Perkins, University of North Dakota.

Europe in the Middle Ages, by Irene L. Plunket (Oxford University Press, New York, 1922; 391 pp.; \$1.85), has been prepared "not so much to supply students with facts as to make Medieval Europe live." To succeed in this and at the same time preserve fair proportions in the narrative and write scientific history briefly is extremely difficult. So many English texts are dry-as-dust catalogues of detailed facts compressed into minute space that it is a real pleasure to find this book, where the great figures of Medieval Europe ride, talk, and fight like living human beings. In tracing the history of the different countries the chronological rather than the topical method is followed and perhaps immature students may be confused thereby. But interest will conquer such difficulties, and high school students and college freshmen will enjoy it. It will make a good reference book for high school libraries.—Clarence Perkins.

Moltke's Military Correspondence, 1870-1871. (First Section. The War to the Battle of Sedan. *Precis* by Spenser Wilkinson. Oxford University Press, New York, 1923; 134 pp.; \$2.50.) Abbreviated though it be, plainly shows the new characteristics of the war, constant use of the telegraph, and thorough employment of railway transportation. Scarcely a page in the book does not contain a reference to one or the other, and orders which emphasize their importance. Thus did the industrial revolution first find sound and effective application in strategy and tactics.—E. C.

The Anglo-American Historical Conference

LONDON, JULY 6-7, 1923.

The Anglo-American Historical Conference, which was inaugurated in London in 1921, under the auspices of the Institute of Historical Research of the University of London, has come to be an annual event to which American scholars in England or the near-by parts of the Continent look forward with genuine pleasure. The third conference was held on July 6-7, in the spacious and comfortable building of the Institute, where the effects of the heat wave which struck London at that time were agreeably modified. Preceding the conference was a meeting of the Anglo-American Historical Committee. This body, composed of British and of available American scholars, furnishes a background for good works of various sorts under the guidance of Professors Pollard, Newton, and Meikle. The Americans attending its session in July were Miss Nellie Neilson, Wallace Notestein, William A. Morris, Samuel E. Morison, and Waldo G. Leland. The work of the Committee is eminently practical in character; it renders advice and aid in the consultation of the historical sources of London, it offers its services for the procuring of copies of documents, and it has already published, in the first number of the *Bulletin* of the Institute of Historical Research (June, 1923), the report of its sub-committee, Professor A. G. Little, convener, on the editing of historical documents. At the July session the committee decided to appoint a sub-committee on the editing of modern historical documents, the previous sub-committee having dealt chiefly with medieval material. The new sub-committee is presided over by Mr. W. Foster, registrar and superintendent of records of the India Office, and its American members are Worthington C. Ford, Clarence W. Alvord, Wallace Notestein, and Waldo G. Leland; the British members are Hilary Jenkinson, R. A. Roberts, and A. E. Stamp, of the Public Record Office; W. Page, editor of the *Victoria County History*, and Professor C. K. Webster, of the University of Wales.

The conference, as distinguished from the meeting of the committee, was held in three sessions, at each of which there was an attendance of 75 or 100. Among the Americans attending, in addition to those already named, were V. W. Crane, H. Hulme, A. E. Lowe, Miss Viola Barnes, Miss Frances H. Relf, Frederic Manning, Mrs. Helen Taft Manning, and Arthur E. Beeson. The first session was devoted to a discussion of the bibliography of modern English history, which has been in preparation by a committee of the American Historical Association co-operating with a committee of British scholars organized by the late Sir George Prothero. The discussion was led by Professor Wallace Notestein, who urged that the scope of the bibliography should be enlarged to include some of the most essential of the manuscript sources and also indicated certain other classes of material, which he felt should be taken into account, as, for example, monographs buried in the publications of local historical societies, magazine

articles, county histories, and county, borough or parish record publications. Several members of the British Committee, who were present, pointed out the difficulty of extending the scope of the bibliography in the absence of adequate funds. It seemed to be the opinion of the conference that a further appeal should be made for funds in order to enable the volume for the Stuart period, which is the work of the British Committee, to be completed on, if possible, a somewhat enlarged scale, and to be published at an early date. The volume for the Tudor period, which has been compiled by the American Committee, is understood to be practically completed, and a member of the American Committee, who is in London at the present time, has been authorized to make preliminary arrangements for its publication.

After an adjournment for tea, which was served in the commons room of the Institute, the conference reconvened to listen to a carefully prepared paper by Mr. J. P. Gilson, Keeper of Manuscripts of the British Museum, on the "Homes and Migrations of Historical Manuscripts." Mr. Gilson traced the history of some of the manuscripts in his department and drew attention to the danger of collections still in private hands being broken up into small lots for sale and thus dispersed. He suggested a method by which the integrity of such collections might be preserved, which is worth noting, for it is as applicable in America as in Great Britain. He pointed out that in any large collection of private manuscripts the number of documents having a considerable sales value is relatively small. It is, however, the high commercial value of these documents which makes it difficult, if not quite impossible for the collection to be purchased by public institutions. To ask the owner of the collection to dispose of it to a public institution at a figure which does not take into account the commercial value of the small number of documents which command a high price is to expect of him a sacrifice which he is often not able to make, no matter how public spirited he may be. Mr. Gilson suggested, therefore, that in the case of such collections the documents having a high sales value should be photographed, after which they could be sold, while the balance of the collection, the place of the documents which had been sold being taken by their photographs, could be acquired by a public institution at a price not beyond its means. In this way the integrity of the collection for historical purposes would be preserved, and the owner would secure the maximum price, or very nearly such.

Mr. Gilson's paper was followed by an animated discussion, in which various methods of insuring the collection and preservation of various kinds of historical documents and records were indicated. The American observer could not help entertaining a feeling of satisfaction at the thought of how much has been done in this direction by the numerous local and State historical societies of the United States. Special attention was given in the discussion to the

difficulty of keeping track of historical manuscripts which are sold out of Great Britain, most of these going to purchasers in America, and it was at the suggestion of some of the Americans present that a resolution was adopted requesting the Anglo-American Historical Committee to "enter into communication with the Historical Manuscripts Commission of the American Historical Association with a view to arranging joint action for the tracing of historical manuscripts which pass out of the hands of their original owners."

It is to be hoped that the Historical Manuscripts Commission will be able to assume such a function which, without adding greatly to its labors, would render a service to American scholars by informing them from year to year respecting the acquisition by American collectors and institutions of manuscripts from abroad, and which would render a corresponding service to foreign scholars by enabling them to know the American location of manuscripts or collections formerly belonging in their respective countries. The increasing number and the importance of importations into America of such historical material make a service of this sort more and more urgent.

After the discussion of Mr. Gilson's paper, which it should be mentioned is to be printed in the *Bulletin* of the Institute of Historical Research, the members of the conference adjourned to University College for dinner and then returned to the Institute, where a pleasant evening was spent in the garden in conversation and informal discussion.

The final session of the conference, on Saturday morning, July 7, was devoted to a paper by Dr. George M. Trevelyan on "The Relation of History and Literature," which will be printed in *History*, the organ of the English Historical Association. Dr. Trevelyan said that the old-time English culture was based on the Bible for the plain man and the classics for the educated, and it satisfied many of the best minds of the day, because it kept history and literature in close connection. The Bible had now been replaced by the sensational daily press (of which he drew a picture which afforded a certain mournful comfort to his American listeners) as the chief cultural aliment of the masses, while the educated depend on science or on history and literature. If these latter are unable to hold their own, the universities will become mere laboratories of science, for science makes an utilitarian appeal both to the student and to the wealthy benefactor. The special mission of history and literature, to make the dead live and to record the spiritual adventures of man, is vital. Historians must not be content merely to collect and interpret the evidence, but must endeavor to achieve a literary exposition of the results of their work.

In the ensuing discussion diverging views were revealed. Professor T. F. Tout was of the opinion that literary form must be left to look after itself, while others urged that every research student should receive some training in the art of literary expression. The chairman of the conference, Professor Pollard, bringing the discussion to a close, expressed a hopeful view respecting the prospects of humanistic

study. He pointed out that it was in the newer British universities, which had commenced with "bread and butter" subjects, that history was coming to its own, and cited the University of Manchester which, in his opinion, had built up the best school of medieval history in England.

This brief account of the conference should not close without more particular mention of the Institute of Historical Research, which is destined to become familiar to all American scholars engaged in historical research in England. The Institute may be described as the historical laboratory of the University of London. It occupies a building constructed for it, a temporary one-story structure, resembling a series of bungalows strung together over a distance of a hundred yards or more, immediately in the rear of the British Museum on Malet Street. This building contains numerous offices and several large reading rooms, supplied with desks and comfortable chairs and with books and filing cases lining the walls. Here are conducted the historical seminars of the university, students engaged in research in London may make their headquarters here, and various co-operative or other historical enterprises have here their seat of operations. Among these are the *Victoria County History*, work on which is being resumed, the editorial offices of *History*, the gathering of material for the correction and amplification of the *Dictionary of National Biography*, and the cataloguing of facsimiles of manuscripts under the direction of Mr. Hilary Jenkinson, assistant keeper of the Public Records. Here, also, is held every Thursday evening, the informal gatherings or *conversazione* of historical scholars, which have so greatly contributed to the pleasure of research in London, and at which American students have an opportunity, not to be found elsewhere, of making acquaintances and of listening to and taking part in stimulating and illuminating discussions. The library of the Institute, distributed through its different reading rooms, one of which is devoted to American history and another to the history of British colonies and dominions, contains, at present, somewhat more than 10,000 volumes and is rapidly growing. Of especial interest to American scholars is the collection of books, pamphlets, clippings, and newspapers which constituted the library of the late Mr. Manton Marble, editor of the *New York World*, and which has been presented to the Institute by his step-daughter, Lady Conway. This collection includes an important group of early Congressional publications, many of them of great rarity, belonging to Albert Gallatin, a file of the *New York World* from 1860 to 1882, and several thousand pamphlets and clippings relating to New York politics, the career of Samuel J. Tilden, and the history of the Democratic party.

The *First Annual Report*, published in January of the present year, presents a detailed summary of all the interesting and important activities of which the Institute is the centre. The Institute has also commenced (June, 1923) the publication of a *Bulletin*, which will be an important addition to historical periodical literature.

WALDO G. LELAND.

Books on History and Government Published in the United States from Apr. 28, to Aug. 25, 1923

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH. D.

AMERICAN HISTORY.

- Arnett, Alex M. *The Populist movement in Georgia*. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 251 pp. \$5.50.
- Attmore, William. *Journal of a tour to North Carolina*. Chapel Hill, N. C.: Univ. of North Carolina. 46 pp.
- Ballard, Vice-Admiral George H. *America and the Atlantic*. N. Y.: Dutton. 351 pp. \$5.00.
- Bemis, Samuel F. *Jay's Treaty; a study in commerce and diplomacy*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 388 pp. \$3.25.
- Benners, Alfred H. *Slavery and its results*. Macon, Ga.: J. W. Burke Co. 58 pp.
- Bernhardt, Joshua. *The interstate commerce commission*. Balto.: Johns Hopkins Press. 169 pp. \$1.00.
- Buell, Raymond L. *The Washington Conference*. N. Y.: Appleton. 474 pp.
- Carey, Charles H. *History of Oregon*. 3 vols. Chicago: Pioneer Histl. Pub. Co.
- Connor, R. D. W. *Studies in the history of North Carolina*. Chapel Hill, N. C.: Univ. of N. C. 44 pp. 50c.
- Conover, Milton. *The general land office; its history activities and organization*. Balto.: Johns Hopkins Press. 236 pp. \$1.50.
- Crook, Alja R. *The origin of the Cahokia mounds*. Springfield, Ill.: Schnepf and Barnes. 26 pp.
- Cutler, Harry G. *History of Florida; past and present*. In 3 vols. Chicago: Lewis Pub. Co.
- Dunbar, Louise B. *A study of "monarchical" tendencies in the United States from 1776 to 1801*. Urbana, Ill.: Univ. of Ill. 164 pp.
- Elliott, Ward C. *History of Reynoldsville [Pennsylvania] and vicinity*. Punxsutawney, Pa.: Spirit Pub. Co. 97 pp.
- Fagan, James O. *The Old South; or the romance of early New England history [story of Old South meeting house, Boston]*. Boston: Geo. H. Ellis Co. 141 pp. \$1.00.
- Gordon, Homestead C. *Men and events; chapters of Virginia history*. Staunton, Va.: McClure Co., 19 W. Frederick St. 158 pp. \$2.00.
- Gruening, Ernest, editor. *These United States; 1st series*. N. Y.: Borie & Liveright. 388 pp. \$3.00.
- Harman, John N. *Annals of Tazewell County, Virginia, from 1800 to 1922*. Richmond, Va.: W. C. Hill Pr. Co.
- Hill, Joseph J. *Ewing Young in the fur trade of the far Southwest, 1822-1834*. Eugene, Oregon: Koke Tiffany Co. 34 pp.
- Institute of International Education. *A bibliography on the United States for foreign Students*. N. Y.: Inst. of Internatl. Education.
- Iowa Journal of history and politics. Vol. 21. No. 2. Iowa City, Ia.: 50c.
- Linn, William H. *The story of the Mormons; from the date of their origin to 1901*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 637 pp. \$3.00.
- MacCorkle, William A. *The personal genesis of the Monroe Doctrine*. N. Y.: Putnam. 102 pp. \$1.50.
- McCutchen, Henry G. *History of Scott County, Arkansas*. Little Rock, Ark.: H. G. Pugh & Co.
- MacDonald, William. *Three centuries of American Democracy*. N. Y.: Holt. 353 pp. (6½ p. bibl.). \$2.25.
- Malone, James H. *The Chickasaw Nation*. Louisville, Ky.: John P. Morton & Co. 537 pp. (14 p. bibl.). \$2.75.
- Metcalfe, Henry H. *New Hampshire in history*. Concord, N. H.: W. B. Ranney Co. 106 pp.
- Plumer, William. *William Plumer's memorandum of proceedings in the United States Senate, 1803-1807*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 682 pp.
- Quaife, Milo M. *John Long's voyages and travels in the years 1768-1788*. Chicago: Donnelly. 238 pp. Not for sale.
- Reyes, José S. *Legislative history of America's economic*

policy toward the Philippines. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 205 pp. \$2.25.

Robertson, William S. *Hispanic-American relations with the United States*. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 479 pp. \$4.00.

Smith, Herbert A. *Federalism in North America*. Brookline, Mass.: Chipman Law Pub. Co., 129 Washington St. 333 pp. \$3.75.

ANCIENT HISTORY.

- Abbott, Frank F. *Roman politics*. Boston: M. Jones. 183 pp. \$1.50.
- Budge, Sir Ernest A. W. *Tut-ankh-amen; Amenism, Atenism, and Egyptian Monotheism*. N. Y.: Dodd, Mead. 160 pp. \$3.00.
- Budge, E. A. W. *A short history of the Egyptian people*. N. Y.: Dutton. 285 pp. \$2.00.
- Cornford, F. M. *Greek religious thought from Homer to the age of Alexander*. N. Y.: Dutton. 287 pp. \$2.00.
- Jerome, Thomas S. *Aspects of the study of Roman history*. N. Y.: Putnam. 434 pp. \$3.50.
- McCartney, Eugene S. *Warfare by land and sea. [Military tactics of Greece and Rome with modern analogies]*. Boston: M. Jones. 225 pp. (2 p. bibl.). \$1.50.
- Marsh, Frank B. *The founding of the Roman Empire*. Austin, Texas: Univ. of Texas. 336 pp.
- Nahas, Bishara. *The life and times of Tut-Ankh-Amen*. N. Y.: Am. Library Service. 112 pp. \$1.50.
- Quibell, Mrs. A. A. *Egyptian history and art with reference to museum collections*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 190 pp. \$2.00.
- Thomas, Isaac. *Topics and questions in ancient history, compiled from examinations of Alberta, Amherst, U. S. Naval Acad. and other institutions*. Cleveland, O.: Univ. Supply and Bk. Co. 70 pp.
- Wilder, Harris H. *Man's prehistoric past*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 477 pp. \$5.00.

ENGLISH HISTORY.

- Bigham, Clive. *The chief ministers of England, 920-1720 A. D.* N. Y.: Dutton. 432 pp. \$8.00.
- Desmond, Shaw. *The drama of Sinn Fein*. N. Y.: Scribner. 494 pp. \$4.00.
- Furley, J. S. *City government of Winchester from the records of the 14th and 15th centuries*. N. Y.: Oxford. 204 pp. \$4.70.
- Greenwood, Alice D. *History of the people of England. Vol. 2. A. D. 1485-1688*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 416 pp. \$2.50.
- Hind, Arthur M. *Wenceslaus Holler and his views of London and Windsor in the 17th century*. N. Y.: Dodd, Mead. 92 pp. and 64 pls. \$12.00.
- Lodge, Sir Richard. *Great Britain and Prussia in the 18th century*. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 232 pp. \$4.70.
- Mackie, R. L. *A short social and political history of Britain*. Yonkers, N. Y.: 440 pp. \$1.88.
- Oman, Sir Charles W. C. *England in the nineteenth century. New revised edition*. N. Y.: Longmans, Green & Co. 307 pp. \$1.25.
- Richmond, H. W. *National policy and naval strength, XVI to XX centuries*. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 20 pp. 35c.
- Savage, Richard. *Minutes and accounts of the corporation of Stratford-Upon-Avon and other records*. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Press. 212 pp. \$11.70.
- Thomson, Gladys S. *Lords Lieutenants in the 16th Century; a study in Tudor local administration*. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 182 pp. \$3.00.
- Tickner, F. W. *Women in English economic history*. N. Y.: Dutton. 239 pp. \$1.50.
- Tsiang, Tingfu F. *Labor and Empire; a study of the reaction of British Labor, mainly as represented in Parliament, to British Imperialism since 1880*. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 220 pp. \$2.25.
- Ward, Sir Adolphus W., and Gooch, G. P., editors. *The Cambridge history of British foreign policy, 1783-1919; Vol. 2, 1815-1866*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 688 pp. \$7.50.
- Webb, Philip Carteret. *A short account of the danegeld, with some further particulars relating to William the Conqueror's survey*. [Reprint from pamphlet first

printed in 1756.] Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard College Library. 38 pp.

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- Alexander, De Alva S. Four famous New Yorkers [Cleveland, Platt, Hill and Roosevelt]. Vol. 4 of the political history of the State of New York, 1882-1905. N. Y.: Holt. 505 pp. \$4.00.

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- Latin-American Opinion of Pan-Americanism. Francis B. Simkins (*South Atlantic Quarterly*, July).
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- The International Congress of Historical Sciences Held at Brussels. Waldo G. Leland (*American Historical Review*, July).
- Reflections on a Century of Political Experience and Thought. Gregory Zilboorg (*Political Science Quarterly*, September, 1921). Issued in August.
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Historical Articles in Current Periodicals

COMPILED BY LEO F. STOCK, PH.D.

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- What is History? J. W. Swain (*Journal of Philosophy*, May 24, June 7, 1921).
- History and Progress. A. F. Pollard (*History*, July).
- History as a Means of Propaganda. F. J. C. Hearnshaw (*Fortnightly Review*, August).
- On Autographs. Hilary Jenkinson (*History*, July).
- The Problem of Sovereignty. Baron S. A. Korff (*American Political Science Review*, August).
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- Democracy in Administration. Jennie M. Turner (*American Political Science Review*, May).
- The Nature of Political Thought. Raymond G. Gettell (*American Political Science Review*, May).
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- The Founding of Aelia Capitolina and the Chronology of the Jewish War under Hadrian. W. D. Gray (*American Journal of Semitic Languages and Literature*, July).
- Rome and the Coming of the Barbarians. Rev. A. H. T. Clarke (*Fortnightly Review*, August).
- Roman Concepts of Equality. Max Radin (*Political Science Quarterly*, June).
- Crown Lands in Feudal Germany. J. W. Thompson (*Journal of Political Economy*, June).
- Knowledge of the Sphericity of the Earth during the Earlier Middle Ages. Rev. Francis S. Betten (*Catholic Historical Review*, April).
- Dante's Views on the Sovereignty of the State. John J. Rolbiecki (*Catholic Historical Review*, April).
- Spanish Influence in Medieval Europe. Edwin A. Ryan (*Catholic Historical Review*, April).
- Historical Implications in the Writings of St. Thomas Aquinas. Henry I. Smith (*Catholic Historical Review*, April).
- THE BRITISH EMPIRE.
- Adventus Vicecomitum*, 1872-1307. Mabel H. Mills (*English Historical Review*, July).
- Regulars and their Appropriated Churches in Medieval England. Egerton Beck (*Catholic Historical Review*, July).
- The Office of Lord Lieutenant. J. W. Fortescue (*Edinburgh Review*, July).
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- Mary Stuart. C à Court Repington (*Nineteenth Century*, August).
- Tudor England through Venetian Eyes. E. Gurney Salter (*Fortnightly Review*, July).
- The Plantation in Ulster at the Beginning of James I's Reign. Constantia Maxwell (*Sewanee Review*, April-June).
- Frederick Henry of Orange and King Charles I. P. Geyl (*English Historical Review*, July).
- History and Lord Oxford. Sir Francis Newbolt (*Nineteenth Century*, July).
- The British Commonwealth of Nations. Sir Robert L. Borden (*Yale Review*, July).
- The History of British Foreign Policy. R. W. Seton-Watson (*Scottish Historical Review*, July).
- Changed Concepts of Liberty in England. Culver H. Smith (*South Atlantic Quarterly*, July).
- General Council of Estates. R. K. Hannay (*Scottish Historical Review*, July).
- The Office of Sheriff in Scotland: its Origin and Early Development. C. A. Malcolm (*Scottish Historical*

Review, July).

The Early Choice of the Forty-Ninth Parallel as a Boundary Line. Charles O. Paullin (*Canadian Historical Review*, June).

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GREAT WAR AND ITS PROBLEMS.

The Genesis of the War. Herbert H. Asquith (*Saturday Evening Post*, July 14-August 11).

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Russia's Part in the Initial Period of the World War. Gen. Joury Daniloff (*Marine Corps Gazette*, June).

The Campaign of Colonel and the Falklands, August 1, 1914, to March 14, 1915. Capt. Edward S. Kellogg (*Coast Artillery Journal*, July).

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History and the Lower Criticism. James T. Adams (*Atlantic Monthly*, September). Concerning history texts.

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Notes on the Slave in Nouvelle, France. William R. Rid-ell (*Journal of Negro History*, July).

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After Three Hundred and Fifty Years. May. George H. Osterhout, Jr. (*Marine Corps Gazette*, June). The story of Charles' Fort, built by Ribault, 1562, on Parris Island, S. C.

Women of the "Mayflower." Mary S. Goozins (*Medford Historical Register*, June).

The Land Policy and System of the Penn Family in Early Pennsylvania. Alan C. Gregg (*Western Pennsylvania Historical Magazine*, July).

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The Unexplored Region in New England History. James T. Adams (*American Historical Review*, July).

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James Alfred Pearce (continued). Bernard C. Steiner (*Maryland Historical Magazine*, June).

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The Knights of the Horseshoe. W. W. Scott (*William and Mary College Quarterly Historical Magazine*, July).

The Development of Trans-Mississippi Political Geography. Ruth L. Higgins (*Iowa Journal of History and Politics*, July).

On the Way to Iowa (*Palimpsest*, July). L. G. Weld, "Pointing the Way"; Bruce E. Mahan, "The Discovery"; Ruth B. Middaugh, "Father Marquette"; John E. Briggs, "Louis Joliet."

Salem Vessels and their Voyages (continued). George G. Putnam (*Historical Collections of Essex Institute*, July).

The South Carolina Up Country at the End of the Eighteenth Century. D. Huger Bacot (*American Historical Review*, July).

Ancestry of James Monroe. E. S. Lewis (*William and Mary College Quarterly Magazine*, July).

Evolution of the Monroe Doctrine. Carl Holliday (*Current History*, July).

The Economic Basis of the Populist Movement in Iowa. Herman C. Nixon (*Iowa Journal of History and Politics*, July).

Congregational Life in Muscatine, 1843-1893. Irving B. Richman (*Iowa Journal of History and Politics*, July).

Pioneer Life in Southwest Missouri, VII. Wiley Britton (*Missouri Historical Review*, April).

The New Journalism in Missouri, I. Walter B. Stevens (*Missouri Historical Review*, April).

The Followers of Duden, XI. William G. Bek (*Missouri Historical Review*, April).

The United States at the Court of Pius IX. Leo F. Stock (*Catholic Historical Review*, April).

The Yankee and the Teuton in Wisconsin (continued). Joseph Schafer (*Wisconsin Magazine of History*, June).

Official Encouragement of Immigration to Minnesota during the Territorial Period. Livia Appel and Theodore C. Blegen (*Minnesota History Bulletin*, August).

- Some Changes in Local Boundaries and Names in Minnesota. Calvin L. Brown (*Minnesota History Bulletin*, February-May, 1922).
- The Pony Express, Its History. Owen C. Coy (*Grizzly Bear*, September).
- The Ranchman's Last Frontier. Edward E. Dale (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, June).
- Newspapers of Washington Territory (continued). Edmond S. Meany (*Washington Historical Quarterly*, July).
- Origin of Washington Geographic Names (continued). Edmond S. Meany (*Washington Historical Quarterly*, July).
- Introduction of Cattle into the Pacific Northwest. C. S. Kingston (*Washington Historical Quarterly*, July).
- Shelby's Expedition to Mexico, X. John N. Edwards (*Missouri Historical Review*, April).
- Jayhawkers in Missouri, 1858-1863. Hildegard R. Herklotz (*Missouri Historical Review*, April).
- Captain John Mullan and the Engineers' Problem. Samuel F. Bemis (*Washington Historical Quarterly*, July).
- John Brown: a Chapter from the Life of Edwin Miller Wheelock. Charles Kassel (*Open Court*, August).
- Recruiting and Crimping in Canada for the Northern Forces, 1861-1865. William F. Raney (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, June).
- The Boy Gunners of Lee. Lieut.-Col. Jennings C. Wise (*Field Artillery Journal*, May-June, July-August).
- Building a War Ship in the Southern Confederacy. Rear-Adm. W. M. Parks (*U. S. Naval Proceedings*, August).
- An Historic Collection of War Portraits. Louise P. Kellogg (*Wisconsin Magazine of History*, June).
- The Grand Army of the Republic (continued). Hosea W. Rood (*Wisconsin Magazine of History*, June).
- The Negotiation of the Gadsden Treaty. J. Fred Rippey (*Southwestern Historical Quarterly*, July).
- Coats of Arms and Badges of the Coast Artillery Corps. Col. Robert E. Wyllie (*Coast Artillery Journal*, August).
- The Early Corporate Development of the Telephone. W. C. Langdon (*Bell Telephone Quarterly*, June).
- The Nelson-Kindred Campaign of 1882. Elmer E. Adams (*Minnesota History Bulletin*, May).
- How Cleveland and Whitney Made the New Navy. George F. Parker (*Saturday Evening Post*, May 19).
- A Neglected Chapter in the History of Combinations: the American Wool Manufacture. Arthur H. Cole (*Quarterly Journal of Economics*, May).
- A Century of Missouri Music, IV. Ernst C. Krohn (*Missouri Historical Review*, April).
- The 1923 Annual Meeting of the Minnesota Historical Society (*Minnesota History Bulletin*, May).
- A Northwest Trader at the Hawaiian Islands. Ralph S. Kuykendall (*Quarterly of the Oregon Historical Society*, June). William Brown, master of the English ship *Butterworth*.

National Council for the Social Studies

SAN FRANCISCO, JULY 2-3, 1923.

The National Council for the Social Studies held two sessions in San Francisco, in connection with the July meeting of the National Education Association. The general topic for discussion was the reorganization movement in the social studies. This topic was considered to be the most vital and prominent one at the present time, particularly on account of the twenty-second yearbook of the National Society for

the Study of Education, devoted to this problem, as well as the different attempts in California to reorganize the social studies. The decision was reached, however, only after the committee had consulted with several prominent leaders throughout the State. It was very much regretted that there was no opportunity for the discussion of objectives in civic education, civic education for teachers, the training of teachers of social studies, and other problems pressing for solution.

The following papers were read: "Necessary Reorganization of the Social Studies," by State Superintendent Will C. Wood, Sacramento, Calif.; "The Twelve-year Program of Social Studies in Pennsylvania," by Jessie C. Evans, Philadelphia; "What the Social Science Association of Southern California Has Done Toward Reorganization," by L. L. Beman, Santa Ana, Calif.; "An Introductory Course for College Freshmen," by Edgar Robinson, Stanford University; "What Should Be Taught in the Social Studies and Why?" by Chester Rowell, Regent of University of California; "Socializing the Social Studies," by Superintendent H. B. Wilson, Berkeley; "Some Applications of the Project Method in the Social Studies," by Professor J. F. Hosic, Teachers College; "World Citizenship," by Professor C. J. H. Hayes, Columbia University.

More than five hundred persons were in attendance at the meetings and the excellent addresses met a very enthusiastic response. It was certainly very gratifying, indeed, to the committee to feel that the meetings were so well attended, and splendid cooperation in the matter of reorganization should be achieved as a result.

Headquarters of the National Council for the Social Studies were maintained on the mezzanine floor of Hotel Whitcomb, just a few blocks from the Convention hall. Books, pamphlets, lists of organizations, and much other material definitely helpful for the teacher of the Social Studies were on display, as well as the yearbooks and membership cards. On Tuesday noon there was an informal luncheon at Hotel Whitcomb, which afforded an opportunity to become acquainted and to exchange views. Advance copies of the program had been sent to the various schools in California, as well as to the educational journals, so considerable publicity was given to the whole conference.

The Committee in charge were Mr. Roy T. Granger, Director of the Social Studies in Oakland, Chairman; Olive Thompson, Director of Social Studies at the San Francisco State Teachers' College, Secretary; Edna M. Stone, University High School, Oakland; A. A. Gray, Berkeley High Schools, and A. J. Cloud, Deputy Superintendent of Schools, in San Francisco.

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